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THE

Young Mathematician's Guide:

Being a PLAIN and EASY

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

MATHEMATICKS.

In FIVE PARTS.

VIZ.

- I. Arithmetick, Vulgar and Decimal, with all the useful Rules; And a General Method of Extracting the Roots of all Single Powers.
- II. Algebra, or Arithmetick in Species; wherein the Method of Raising and Resolving Equations is rendered Easy; and illustrated with Variety of Examples, and Numerical Questions. Also the whole Business of Interest and Annuities, &c. performed by the Pen.
- III. The Elements of Ecometry, contracted, and Analytically demonstrated; with a new and easy Method of finding the Circle's Periphery and Area to any assigned Exactness, by one Equation only: Also a new way of making Sines and Tangents.
- IV. Conick Sections, wherein the chief Properties, &c. of the Ellipsis, Parabola, and Hyperbola, are clearly demonstrated.
- V. The Arithmetick of Infinites explained, and rendered Eafy; with it's Application to superficial and solid Geometry.

With an Appendix of Pactical Gauging.

By JOHN WARD.

The TENTH EDITION, carefully Corrected.

To which is added,

A SUPPLEMENT, containing the History Logarithms, and an INDEX to the whole Work.

LONDON:

Printed for C. Hitch and L. Hawes, E. Wicksteed, J. Beecroft, W. Johnston, J. Richardson, T. Longman, S. Crowder and Co. P. Davey and B. Law, and T. Caston. 1758.



To the HONOURABLE

Sir RICHARD GROSVENOR, of Eaton, in the County Palatine of Chester, Baronet.

SIR,

London, to revise and prepare this Treatise for a New Impression, and once resolved to answer their Demands; I was not long considering at whose Feet to lay it.

My Memory may indeed be impaired by Age, Misfortunes, and Accidents; nay, I am sensible it is so: But it must be entirely lost, when I am forgetful of the great Obligations I lie under to

Sir Richard Grosvenor.

Your Hospitality and Generosity make you stand unenvied in the Abundance of Fortune. Any Upstart may contrive to spend a Great Estate; but it is a Felicity almost peculiar to Great Birth to become One.

Were I now to describe Liberality, without Profusenes; Steadines in Principles, without any private View; Candour and Affability, Good Nature joined to sound Judgment, and a Serenity of Temper, which your Enemies will always find the Companion of true Courage; and then pronounce that you are possessed of all these good Qualities in as high a Degree as most Men living; No Gentleman that knows you well, would think I slattered you.

A 2 Sir,

Sir, Give me Leave to fay, I honour your Character, and love your Person; My Expressions are uncourtly, my Stile unpolished, and therefore more proper to be presized to a Work wherein the Matters related are indeed clad in a plain and homely Dress; but they are true, and designed to propagate Mathematical Learning among such as desire to be introduced into that Sort of Knowledge; and I am extreamly pleased they are permitted to be sent into the World under your Protection.

That you may long live, to promote the Good of your Country, and that City in whose Interest you have so heartily engaged yourself; and that you may ever succeed in your own private Affairs, and live to enjoy all the Blessings that attend a quiet

prudent Life, is the earnest Prayer of,

Honoured SIR,

Your most Obliged, Humble,

and Obedient Servant,

J. WARD.

To the READER.

Think it needless (and almost endless) to run over all the Usefulness, and Advantages of Mathematicks in General; and shall therefore only touch upon those two admirable Sciences, Arithmetick and Geometry; which are indeed the two grand Pillars (or rather the Foundations) upon which all other Parts of Mathematical Learning depend

As to the Usefulness of Arithmetick, it is well known that no Business, Commerce, Trade, or Employment whatsoever, even from the Merchant to the Shop-keeper, &c. can be managed and carried

on, without the Assistance of Numbers.

And as to the Usefulness of Geometry, it is as certain, that no curious Art, or Mechanick-Work, can either be invented, improved, or performed, without it's assisting Principles; though perhaps the Artist, or Workman, has but little (nay, scarce any) Knowledge in

Geometry.

Then, as to the Advantages that arise from both these Noble Sciences, when duly joined together, to assist each other, and then apply'd to Practice, (according as Occasion requires) they will readily be granted by all who consider the vast Advantages that accrue to Mankind from the Business of Navigation only. As also from that of Surveying and Dividing of Lands betwixt Party and Party. Besides the great Pleasure and Use there is from Time-keepers, as Dials, Clocks, Watches, &c. All these, and a great many more very useful Arts, (too many to be enumerated here) wholly depend upon the aforesaid Sciences.

And therefore it is no Wonder, That in all Ages so many Ingenious and Learned Persons have employed themselves in writing upon the Subject of Mathematicks; but then most of those Authors seem to presuppose, that their Readers had made some Progress in that Sort of Learning before they attempted to peruse those Books, which are generally large Volumes, written in such abstruse Terms, that young

Learners were really afraid of looking into those Studies.

These Considerations first put me (many Years ago) upon the Thoughts of endeavouring to compose such a plain and familiar Introduction to the Mathematicks, as might encourage those that were willing (to spend some Time that Way) to venture and proceed on with Chearfulness; though perhaps they were wholly ignorant of it's first Rudiments. Therefore I began with their first Elements or Principles.

That

The PREFACE.

That is, I began with an Unit in Arithmetick, and a Point in Geometry; and from these Foundations proceeded gradually on, leading the young Learner Step by Step with all the Plainness I could, &c.

And for that Reason I published this Treatise (Anno 1707) by the Title of the Young Mathematician's Guide; which has answered the Title so well, that I believe I may truly say (without Vanity) this Treatise hath proved a very helpful Guide to near five thousand Persons; and perhaps most of them such as would never have looked into the Mathematicks at all but for it.

And not only so, but it hath been very well received among st the Learned, and (I have been often told) so well approved on at the Universities, in England, Scotland, and Ireland, that it is ordered

to be publickly read to their Pupils, &c.

The Title Page gives a short Account of the several Parts treated of, with the Corrections and Additions that are made to this Fifth Edition, which I shall not enlarge upon, but leave the Book to speak for itself; and if it be not able to give Satisfaction to the Reader, I am sure all I can say here in it's Behalf will never recommend it: But this may be truly said, That whoever reads it over, will find more in it than the Title doth promise, or perhaps he expects: it is true indeed, the Dress is but Plain and Homely, it being wholly intended to instruct, and not to amuse or puzzle the young Learner with hard Words, and obscure Terms: However, in this I shall always have the Satisfaction; That I have sincerely aimed at what is useful, tho' in one of the meanest ways; it is Honour enough for me to be accounted as one of the Under-Labourers in clearing the Ground a little, and removing some of the Rubbish that lay in the Way to this Sort of Knowledge. How well I have performed That, must be left to proper Judges.

To be brief; as I am not sensible of any Fundamental Error in this Treatise, so I will not pretend to say it is without Impersections, (Humanum est errare) which I hope the Reader will excuse, and pass over with the like Candour and Good-Will that it was composed

for his Use; by his real Well-wisher,

J. WARD.

London, October 10th, 1706.

Corrected, &c. at Chester, January 20th, 1722.

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AN

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

Mathematicks.

PART I.

PRÆCOGNITA.

Theory and Practice, is only to search out and determine the true Quantity; either of Matter, Space, or Motion, according as Occasion requires.

By Quantity of Matter is here meant the Magnitude or Bigness of any visible thing, whose Length, Breadth, and Thickness,

may either be measured, or estimated.

By Quantity of Space is meant the Distance of one thing from another.

And by Quantity of Motion is meant the Swiftness of any thing moving from one Place to another.

The Consideration of these, according as they may be proposed, are the Subjects of the Mathematicks, but chiefly that of Matter.

Now the Consideration of Matter, with respect to it's Quantity, Form, and Position, which may either be Natural, Accidental, or Designed, will admit of infinite Varieties: But all the Varieties that are yet known, or indeed possible to be conceived, are wholly comprized under the due Consideration of these Two, Magnitude and Number, which are the proper Subjects of Geometry, Arithmetick, and Algebra. All other Parts of the Mathematicks being only the Branches of these three Sciences, or rather their Application to particular Cases.

Beautity is a Science by which we search out, and come to know, either the whole Magnitude, or some Part of any proposed Quantity; and is to be obtained by comparing it with another known Quantity of the same Kind, which will always be one of these, viz. Aline (or Length only); A Surface (that is, Length and Breadth); or a Solio (which bath Length, Breadth, and Depth, or Thickness); Nature admitting of no other Dimensions but these Three.

Arithmetick is a Science by which we come to know what Number of Quantities there are (either real or imaginary) of any Kind, contained in another Quantity of the same Kind: Now this Consideration is very different from that of Geometry, which is only to find out true and proper Answers to all such Questions as demand, how Long, how Broad, how Big, &c. But when we consider either more Quantities than one, or how often one Quantity is contained in another, then we have recourse to Arithmetick, which is to find out true and proper Answers to all such Questions as demand, how Many, what Number or Multitude of Quantities there are. To be brief, the Subject of Geometry is that of Quantity, with respect to it's Magnitude only; and the Subject of Arithmetick is Quantities with respect to their Number only.

Algebra is a Science by which the most abstruse or difficult Problems, either in Arithmetick or Geometry, are Resolved and Demonstrated; that is, it equally interferes with them both; and therefore it is promiscuously named, being sometimes called Specious Arithmetick, as by Harriot, Vieta, and Dr Wallis, &c. And sometimes it is called Modern Geometry, particularly the ingenious and great Mathematician Dr Edmund Halley, Savilian Professor of Geometry in the University of Oxford, and Royal Astronomer at Greenwich, giving this following Instance of the Ex-

cellence of our Modern Algebra, writes thus:

'The Excellence of the Modern Geometry (saith he) is in nothing more evident, than in those full and Adequate Solutions

it gives to Problems; representing all the possible Cases at one View, and in one general Theorem many times comprehending

whole Sciences; which deduced at length into Propositions, and demonstrated after the Manner of the Ancients, might well be-

come the Subjects of large Treatises: For whatsoever Theorem

folves the most complicated Problem of the Kind, does with a due Reduction reach all the subordinate Cases.' Of which he gives a notable Instance in the Doctrine of Dioptricks for finding the Foci of Optick Glasses universally. (Vide Philosophical Transactions, Numb. 205.)

Thus

Thus you have a short and general Account of the proper Subjects of those three noble and useful Sciences, Arithmetick, Geometry, and Algebra. I shall now proceed to give a particular Account of each; and first of Arithmetick, which is the Basis or Foundation of all Arts, both Mathematick and Mechanick; and therefore it ought to be well understood before the rest are meddled withal.

CHAP. I.

Concerning the several Parts of Arithmetick, with the Definition of such Characters as are used in this Treatise.

Rithmetick, or the Art of Numbering, is fitly divided into three distinct Parts, two of which are properly called Natu-

ral, and the third Artificial.

The first, being the most plain and easy, is commonly called Vulgar Arithmetick in whole Numbers; because every Unit or Integer concerned in it, represents one whole Quantity of some

Species or thing proposed.

The second is that which supposes an Unit (and consequently the Quantity or thing represented by that Unit) to be Broken or Divided into equal Parts (either even or uneven) and considers of them either as pure Parts, viz. Each less than an Unit, or else of Parts and Integers intermixt. And is usually called the

Dostrine of Vulgar Fractions.

The third, or Artificial Part, is called Decimal Arithmetick; being an Artificial Invention of managing Fractions or Broken Numbers, by a much more commodious and easy Way than that of Vulgar Fractions: For the several Operations performed in Decimals, differ but little from those in Whole Numbers: and therefore it is now become of general Use, especially in Geometrical Computations.

Arithmetick (in all it's Parts) is performed by the various ordering and disposing of Ten Arabick Characters or Numeral

Figures (which by some are called Digits).

viz \ \ One, Two, Three, Four, Five, Six, Seven, Eight, Nine, Cypher, 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0

The Use of these Characters is said to be first introduced into England near six hundred Years ago, viz. about the Year 1130, vide Dr Wallis's Algebra, Page 12.

The

The first of these Characters is called Unity, and represents one of any Kind of Species or Quantity. As one World, one Star, one Man, &c.

Viz. Unity is that by which every thing that is, is called one, (Euclid. 7. Def. 1.) and is the beginning of all Numbers. That is to fay, Number is a Multitude of Units. Euclid 7. Def. 2.

For, one more one, makes Two; and one, more one, more one makes Three, &c. Which is the first and chief Postulate, or rather Axiom to Arithmetick.

$$Viz.$$
 That $1+1=2$. $1+1+1=3$. $1+1+1+1=4$. $1+1+1+1+1=5$. And so on to 9.

Nine of these Figures were thus composed of Units, and differently form'd to represent so many Units put together into one Sum, as was intended each should denote: Nine being the greatest Number of Units that was then thought convenient to be expressed by one single Character; the last of the Ten is only a Cypher, or (as some phrase it) a Nothing, because of itself it signifies nothing; for if never so many Cyphers be Added to, or Substracted from, any Number, they can neither increase nor diminish that Number; but yet, as a Cypher (or Cyphers) may be placed, the other Figures will become of different Values from what they were before, as will appear further on.

For the more convenient ordering of the aforesaid Numeral Figures, according to the several Varieties that happen in Computations; I do advise the young Learner to acquaint himself with the Signification of the following Algebraick Signs or Characters, which he will find of excellent Use, as being a much shorter, better, and more significant Way of denoting what is to be done (in most Operations) than can otherwise be expressed in Words

at length.

Significations.

The Sign of Addition; as 8+7 is 8 more 7, and fignifies that the Numbers 8 and 7 are to be added into one Sum. The like is to be understood when several Numbers are connected together with the Sign +.

As 34+22+9+45, &c. denotes these are all to be added into one Sum.

× $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text{Into or} \\ \text{with.} \end{array}\right\}$ The Sign of Multiplication; as 9×6 , is 9 into 6, and fignifies that 9 is to be Multiplied into or with 6.

The Sign of Division; as $8 \div 2$, is 8 by 2, and fignifies that 8 is to be Divided by 2, also thus 2) 8 (4 or thus $\frac{2}{8}$ each fignifying the same thing, to wit, 8 Divided by 2.

The Sign of Equality or Equation, viz. whenever this Sign = is placed betwixt Numbers (or Quantities) it denotes them to be Equal, as 9=9, or 9+6=15, or 9-6=3, &c. That is, 9 is Equal to 9, or 9 more 6 is Equal to 15, and 9 less 6 is Equal to 3, &c.

The Sign of Proportion, or that commonly called the Golden Rule, or Rule of Three, and :: is always placed betwixt the Two middle Terms or Numbers in Proportion. Thus 2:8::6:24. To be read thus; as 2, is to 8; fo is 6, to 24.

These Signs and their Significations, being perfectly learnt, will help to shorten the Work.

CHAP. II.

Concerning the Principal Rules in Arithmetick, and how they are performed in Whole Numbers.

HE Rules by which Numerical Operations are perform'd in all the Parts of Arithmetick, are many and various, several of them being form'd and raised as Occasion requires, when applied to Practice; yet they are all comprehended within the due Consideration of these Six, viz. Pumeration (or Potastion)

tion) Addition, Substraction, Hultiplication, Division, and Evolution, or Extraction of Roots.

Sect. 1. Of Pumeration or Potation.

Rumeration or Notation, teacheth to Read or Express the true Value of any Number when writ down; and consequently to write down any proposed Number according to it's true Value when it is named: And this consistent of Two Parts.

The due Order of placing down Figures.
 The true valuing of each Figure in it's Place.

Both which are plainly exhibited in the following Table.

783,	in
Ecc. Hundreds of Thoulands of Millions, Tens of Thoulands of Millions Thoulands of Millions Hundreds of Millions Millions Mullions Tens of Thoulands Tens of Thoulands Thoulands Hundreds	Tens Units \{ And is the first Place in Counting.
of Millions	A F
of lons ons	fr
Ec. Hundreds of Thousands Tens of Thousands of Thousands of Millions Hundreds of Millions Tens of Millions Millions Tens of Thousands Tens of Thousands Thousands Hundreds	d is the
Ec. Hundreds of Thousands Tens of Thousands Thousands of Mill Hundreds of Mill Tens of Millions Millions Tens of Thousands Thousands Hundreds	d is
Ec. Hundreds of Thou Thou fant of Thou fands of Hullins Millions Hundreds of Tens of Millins Tens of Thou Thou fands Hundreds	Am
Ec. Hundreds Tens of Thousands Hundreds Tens of Millions Tens of Thousands Hundreds Hundreds Hundreds	ns nits
HARAHARA	Tens Units
6 7 8 19 8 7 16 5 4 13	2 I
	Period of Inits.
of Millions. Sands.	

By this Pumeration Table it is apparent, that the Order of Places is reckoned from the Right-hand towards the Left; the first Place of any Number being always that which is the outmost Figure to the Right-hand: and whatever Figure stands in that Place, doth only signify it's own simple Value, viz. so many Units as that Figure represents.

The second Place is that of Tens, and any Figure standing in that Place signifieth so many Tens as that Figure represents Units.

The

The third Place is Hundreds, the fourth Place Thousands, &c. That is, each Place towards the Left-hand is Ten Times the

Value of that next it, towards the Right.

For Instance, suppose 759 were proposed to be read or pronounced according to the Value of each Figure as they now The first Figure in this Sum is o, because it stands in the Place of Units, and therefore fignifies but it's own fimple Value, to wit, 9 Units, or 9. The second Figure 5 stands in the Place of Tens, and therefore fignifies Five Tens or Fifty. The Figure 7 stands in the third Place, or Place of Hundreds, and therefore it signifies Seven Hundred; and the whole Sum is to be read or pronounced thus, Seven Hundred Fifty Nine.

Note, Although the Figure 7 stands in the third Place (according to the Order of Numbering) yet when the whole Sum comes to be read, it is first pronounced; the reading of Numbers being performed like that of Letters or Words, always beginning with the outmost Figure towards the Left-hand, and so many Figures as are placed together without any Point, Comma, Line, or other Note of Distinction between them, are all but one Sum, and

must be read as such.

For Example, 763596 is but one entire Sum or Number, notwithstanding it consists of six Places of Figures, and is thus read; Seven Hundred Sixty Three Thousand, Five Hundred

Ninety Six.

The like is to be observed in reading or expressing the true Value of any Sum or Rank of Numbers confisting of Seven, Eight, Nine, or more Places of Figures, each Figure being to be valued according to it's Distance from the Place of Unity: As in the

foregoing Table.

Now fuch Values may as well arise by Cyphers, as by other Figures; for Instance, 6 standing by itself, represents but Six Units: But if a Cypher be annext to it thus, 60, then it becomes Sixty; for the Cypher possessing the Place of Units, hath thereby removed the 6 into the Place of Tens; and another Cypher more would make it 600, Six Hundred, &c.

Whence it may be noted, that although a Cypher of itself fignify nothing (as hath been faid before) yet being placed on the Right-hand of any Figure, it augments the Value of that Figure by advancing it into a higher Place than otherwise it would have

been, had not the Cypher been there.

Take one Example more in Numeration (if you please, that in the Table) viz. 678987654321, which is, according as is there fignified.

Six Hundred Seventy Eight Thousand Millions,

Nine Hundred Eighty Seven Millions, Six Hundred Fifty Four Thousand,

Three Hundred Twenty One Units. Of any proposed Species

or Quantities whatsoever.

And here it may be observed, that every third Figure from the Place of Units, bears the Name of Hundreds; which shews that if any great Sum be parted, or rather distinguished into Periods, of Three Figures in each Period (as in the foregoing Table), it will be of good Use to help the young Learner in the easier valuing and expressing that Sum.

Sect. 2. Of Addition. Postulate or Petition.

That any given Rumber may be increased or made more, by putting another Rumber to it.

Addition is that Rule by which several Numbers are collected and put together, that so their Sum or Total Amount may be known.

In this Rule Two things being carefully observed, the Work

will be eafily performed.

1. The first is the true placing of the Numbers, so as that each Figure may stand directly underneath those Figures of the same Value, viz. place Units under Units, Tens under Tens, and Hundreds under Hundreds, &c.

Then underneath the lowest Rank (always) draw a Line to feparate the given Numbers from their Sum when it is found.

Example. If these Numbers 54327, and 2651, were given to be added together, they must be placed

Thus, $\begin{cases} 54327 \\ 2651 \end{cases}$

2. The fecond thing to be observed is the due Collecting or Adding together each Row of Figures that stand over one another of the same Value: And that is thus performed.

Rule.

Always begin your Addition at the Place of Units, and Add together all the Figures that stand in that Place, and if their Sum be under Ten, set it down below the Line underneath it's own Place; but if their Sum be more than Ten, you must set down only the overplus, or odd Figure above the Ten (or Tens) and so many Tens as the Sum of those Units amount to, you must carry

to the place of Tens; Adding them and all the Figures that stand in the place of Tens together, in the same manner as those of the Units were added; then proceed in the same order to the place of Hundreds, and so on to each place until all is done.

The Sum arising from those Additions will be the Total

Amount required.

EXAMPLE 1.

Let it be required to find the Sum of the aforesaid Numbers, viz. } 2651

56978 the Sum required.

Beginning at the place of Units, I say I and 7 is 8, which being less than 10, I set it down (according to the Rule) underneath its own place of Units; and then proceed to the place of Tens, faying 5 and 2 is 7, which being less than 10, I set it down underneath its own place of Tens, and proceed to do the like at the place of Hundreds, and then at Thousands, setting each of their Sums underneath their own respective places: Lastly, because there is not any Figure in the lower Rank to be added to the Figure 5, which stands in the place of Ten Thousands, in the upper Rank, I therefore bring down the faid 5 to the rest, placing it underneath its own place, and then I find that 54327 + 2651 = 56978, the true Sum required.

EXAMPLE 2.

Suppose it were required to find the Sum of these Numbers, 3578+496+742+184+95. These being placed, as before directed, will stand as in the Margin. Then beginning (as before) at the place of Units, fay 5 and 4 is 9, and 2 is 11, and 6 is 17, and 8 is 25; fet down the 5 Units underneath its 3578 own place of Units, and carry the 20, or two Tens, to the 496 place of Tens (at which place they are only 2) faying, 2 742 and 9 is 11, and 8 is 19, and 4 is 23, and 9 is 32, and 7 184 is 39; set down the 9 underneath its own place of Tens, 95 and carry the 30, or three Tens (which indeed is 300) to the place of Hundreds, at which place they are but 3, 5095 faying, 3 I carry and 1 is 4, and 7 is 11, and 4 is 15, and 5 is 20; here because there is no Figure overplus (as before) I set down a Cypher underneath the place of Hundreds, and carry the 2 Tens (or rather the 2000) to the place of Thousands, saying

(as before) 2 I carry and 3 is 5, which being the last, I set it down underneath its own place, and all is finished. And find the Sum or Total amount to be 5095=3578+496+742+184+95.

If this Example be well confidered, it will be sufficient to shew the usual Method of Addition in whole Numbers; but to make all plain and clear, I shall shew the young Learner the Reason of carrying the Tens from one Degree or Row of Figures, to the next Superior Degree, which is done purely to save Trouble, and prevent the using of more Figures than are really necessary, as will appear by the sollowing Method of adding together the same Numbers of the last Example.

Thus, add together each fingle Row of Figures by itself; as if there were no more but that one Row, fetting down the Sum underneath its own place.

20	3	5	7	8
	ı	4	9	6
>		7	4	2
		1	8	4
7			9	5

The Sum of the Row of Units, is The Sum of the Row of Tens, is The Sum of the Row of Hund. is The three Thousand brought down

ĺ	I		2	57	
ı	I	3	7	0	Add
ı	1	7	0	0	71144
I	3	0	0	0.	•

The Sum or Total Amount as before, is 5095

From hence I presume it will be easy to conceive the true Reason of carrying the aforesaid Tens; and also that Cyphers do not augment or increase the Sum in Addition. (See Page 4.)

I might have here inserted a Lineal Demonstration of this Rule of Addition; but I thought it would rather puzzle than improve a young Learner, especially in this place; besides the Reason of it is sufficiently evident from that Natural Truth of the Whole being Equal to all its Parts taken together. Euclid 1. Axiom 19.

That is, the Numbers which are proposed to be added together, are by that Axiom understood to be the several Parts, and their Sum or Total Amount sound by Addition is understood to be

the Whole.

And from thence is deduced the Method of proving the Truth of any Operation in Addition, viz. By parting or separating the given Numbers into Two Parcels (or more, according to the Largeness of it) and then adding up each Parcel by itself: For if those particular Sums so found, be added into one Sum, and that Sum prove Equal or the same with the Total Sum first found,

found, then all is right; if not, care must be taken to discover and correct the Error.

$$EXAMPLE$$
.

 $\begin{cases}
 5^{647} \\
 3289 \\
 4016
 \end{cases}$

The Sum of these Parts is, 12952

Add

 $\begin{cases}
 -2900 \\
 5007 \\
 1606
 \end{cases}$

The Sum of these, is 9513

The Total Sum of all these Parts \ 22465

The Sum of each ? Parcel put together ? 22465

Sect. 3. Of Substraction.

Postulate or Petition.

That any Pumber may be diminished, or made less, by taking another Pumber from it.

Substraction is that Rule by which one Number is deducted or taken out of another, that so the Remainder, Difference, or Excess may be known.

As 6 taken out of 9, there remains 3. This 3 is also the Difference betwixt 6 and 9, or it is the Excess of 9 above 6.

Therefore the Number (or Sum) out of which Substraction is required to be made, must be greater than (or at least equal to) the Subtrahend or Number to be substracted.

Note, This Rule is the Converse or Direct contrary to

Addition.

And here the same Caution that was given in Addition, of placing Figures directly under those of the same Value, viz. Units under Units, Tens under Tens, and Hundreds under Hundreds, &c. must be carefully observed; also underneath the lowest Rank there must be drawn a Line (as before in Addition) to separate the given Numbers from their Difference when it is found.

Then having placed the leffer Number under the greater, the

Operation may be thus performed.

RULE.

Begin at the Right Hand Figure or place of Units (as in Addition) and take or substract the lower Figure in that place C 2

from the Figure that stands over it, setting down the Remainder or Difference underneath its own place. If the Two Figures chance to be Equal, set down a Cypher: But if the upper Figure be less than the lower Figure, then you must add 10 to the upper Figure, or mentally call it 10 more than it is, and from that Sum substract the lower Figure, setting down the Remainder (as before directed). Now because the 10 thus added, was supposed to be borrowed from the next superior place (viz. of Tens) in the upper Figures, therefore you must either call the upper Figure in that place from whence the 10 was borrowed, one less than really it is, or else (which is all one, and most usual) you must call the lower Figure in that place one more than it really is, and then proceed to Substruction in that place, as in the former; and so gradually on from one Row of Figures to another until all be done.

EXAMPLE 1.

Let it be required to find the Difference between 6785, and 4572. That is, let 4572 be substracted from 6785.

These Numbers being placed down, as before directed, will

stand

2213

Beginning at the place of Units, take 2 from 5 and there will remain 3 which must be set down underneath its own place, and then proceed to the place of Tens, taking 7 from 8, and there will remain 1, to be set down underneath its own place; again, at the place of Hundreds, take 5 from 7, and there remains 2, which set down, as before; lastly, take 4 from 6 and there will remain 2, which being set down underneath its own place, the Work is finished, and the Difference so found will be 2213=6785-4572, as was required.

EXAMPLE 2.

The Difference between 5849, and 7496 is required. Having placed the Numbers as in the Margin, begin at the place of Units (as before) and say 9 from 6 cannot be, but 9 from 16 and there remains 7, to be set down under its own place; next proceed to the place of Tens, where you must now pay the 10 that was borrowed to make the 6, 16, by counting the upper Figure 9 in that

place one less than it is, saying 4 from 8 and there remains 4, or else (which is the most practised) say 1 I borrowed and 4 is 5

from

from 9 and there remains 4, to be set down under its own place (as before); again, at the place of Hundreds, say 8 from 4 that cannot be, but 8 from 14 there will remain 6 to be set down; and here I have borrowed 10 (as before) which must be paid in the same manner as the other 10 was, viz. either by calling the 7 in the upper Rank but 6, saying 5 from 6 there remains 1, or else by saying 1 borrowed and 5 is 6 from 7 and there remains 1, which being set down under its own place all is done, and the Difference required will be 1647 = 7496 - 5849.

E X A M P L E 3. From 830476 Take 741068

Remains 89408

By this Example you may perceive that Cyphers in the Subtrahend, viz. in the Numbers to be substrated, do not diminish the Number from whence Substration is made. See Page 4.

These Three Examples, I presume, may be sufficient to shew the young Learner the Method of Substracting whole Numbers; as for the Reason thereof it is the same with that of Addition, Page 10, viz. of the Whole being Equal to all its Parts taken together.

That is, in this Rule the Number from which Substraction is required to be made, is understood to be the Whole, and the Subtrahend or Number to be substracted, is supposed to be a part of that Whole; consequently if that Part be taken from the

Whole, the Remainder will be the other part.

From hence is deduced the common Method of proving Subfraction, by adding together the Subtrahend and the Remainder. For if the Sum of those Two (which are here called Parts) be equal to the Number from whence Substraction was made (which is here called the Whole) then the Work is right; if not, care must be taken to discover and correct the Error.

EXAMPLE.

From 59435
Take 47608
Add

Proof \{ \frac{11827}{59435} \} \]

Add

Proof \{ \frac{108}{59435} \} The Sum which is equal to the Number from whence Substraction was made.

Or from the abovefaid Reason, it will be easy to conceive how to prove the Truth of Substraction by Substraction.

For if from 59435 being here the whole, there be taken 47608 as part of that whole;

there will remain 11827 the other part (as before)

And if from 59435 the whole, there be fubstracted the last part, viz. 11827

there will remain 47608 the first part, or Number which was required to be first Substracted.

From 75643 Take 9000 From 7000000 Take 986432

Remains 66643

Remains 6013568

Sect. 4. Of Multiplication.

Multiplication is a Rule by which any given Number may be speedily increased, according to any proposed Number of Times.

That is, One Number is said to Multiply another, when the Number multiplied is so often added to itself, as there are Units in the Number multiplying; and another Number is produced. (Euclid 7. Def. 15.)

To perform Multiplication, there is required two given Num-

bers, called Factors.

The First is the Number to be multiplied, which is generally put the greater of the Two Numbers, and is commonly called

the Multiplicand.

The other is that Number by which the First is to be multiplied, and is usually called the Multiplicator or Multiplier; and this denotes the Number of Times that the Multiplicand is required to be added to itself. For so many Units as are contained in the Multiplier, so many times will the Multiplicand be really added to itself (as per Euclid above). And from thence will arise a Third Number, called the Product. But in Geometrical Operations it is called the Rectangle or Plain.

For instance; suppose it were required to increase 6 sour times, that is, to multiply 6 into or with 4. These two Numbers are to be set (or placed) down as in Addition or Substraction.

Thus

Product 24 viz. 4 times 6 is 24, as plainly appears by Addition, viz. By fetting down 6 four times, and then adding them together into one

Sum,

Thus

Add

Add

Add

Add

From hence it is evident, that Multiplication—
is only a Concise or Compendious Way of adding any given Number to itself, so often as any Number of

Times may be proposed.

Before any Operation can be readily performed in Multiplication, the feveral Products of the fingle Figures one into another must be perfectly learn'd by Heart, viz. That 2 times 2 is 4, that 3 times 3 is 9, and 3 times 6 is 18, &c. According as they are expressed in the following Table; wherein I have omitted multiplying with 2, it being so very easy that any one may do it.

Multiplication Table.

$3 \times 4 = 12$ $3 \times 5 = 15$ $3 \times 6 = 18$	4×5=20 4×6=24 4×7=28 4×8=32	5×6=30 5×7=35 5×8=40 5×9=45	$6 \times 7 = 42$ $6 \times 8 = 48$ $6 \times 9 = 54$	7×7=49 7×8=56 7×9=63	$8 \times 9 = 72$
3×9=27		100			

I think it needless to give any Explanation of this Table; for if the Signs and their Significations be well understood, (vide page 5) it must needs be easy. Only this may be noted, that $4 \times 3 = 3 \times 4$, or $7 \times 5 = 5 \times 7$, &c.

That is, 3 times 4 is the same with 4 times 3, or 5 times 7 is the same with 7 times 5, &c. The like must be understood

of all the rest in the Table.

And when all these single Products are so perfectly learn'd by Heart, as to be said without pausing; you may then proceed (but not 'till then) to the Business of Multiplication; which will be found very easy, if the following Rule (and Examples) be carefully observed.

RULE.

Always begin with that Figure which stands in the Units place with the Multiplier, and with it multiply the Figure which stands

in the Units place of the Multiplicand; if their Product be less than Ten, set it down underneath its own place of Units, and proceed to the next Figure of the Multiplicand. But if their Product be above Ten (or Tens) then set down the Overplus only (or odd Figure, as in Addition) and bear (or carry) the said Ten or Tens in mind until you have multiplied the next Figure of the Multiplicand, with the same Figure of the Multiplier; then to their Product add the Ten or Tens carried in mind, setting down the Overplus of their Sum above the Tens, as before: and so proceed on in the very same manner, until all the Figures of the Multiplicand are multiplied with that Figure of the Multiplier.

EXAMPLE I.

Suppose it were required to multiply 3213 into or with 3.

3213 Multiplicand for Factors.

3 Multiplier,

Product 9639

Beginning at the Units place, say 3 times 3 is 9, which, because it is less than Ten, set down underneath its own place, and proceed to the next place of Tens, saying 3 times 1 is 3, which set down underneath its own place; then to the next place, viz. of Hundreds, saying 3 times 2 is 6, which set down, as before; lastly, at the place of Thousands, say 3 times 3 is 9, which being set down underneath its own place, the Operation is finish'd; and the true Product is 9639=3213 × 3, as was required.

EXAMPLE 2.

Let it be required to multiply 8569 into 8. Set down these Numbers as before,

68552

Beginning at the Units place, say 8 times 9 is 72, set down the 2 inderneath its own place of Units, and bear the 70, or 7 Tens in mind, and proceed to the next Figure of the Multiplicand (at which place the 7 Tens are only 7) saying 8 times 6 is 48, and the 7 carried in mind is 55; set down the odd 5 underneath its own place of Tens, and carry the 50 (which is really 500) to the next place (viz. of Hundreds) at which place it is only 5, where say, 8 times 5 is 40, and the 5 carried in mind is 45; set down the 5 underneath its own place, and carry the 40 or 4 Tens (which is really 4000) to the

next place, viz. of Thousands, saying, 8 times 8 is 64, and 4 carried in mind is 68. (Now this being the last Place or Figure to be multiplied) Set down the whole Product 68, and the Work is done.

So that, 8569 x 8 = 68552, the Product required.

Now the Reason of this and all other the like Operations, may be easily conceived from this which follows.

8 5 6 9 The same Factors as before.

Here 8 times 9 is 72, as before, because the 9 stands in the Units place.

Now here it is not really 8 times 6=48, but it is 8 times 60=480, because the 6 stands in the place of Tens.

And here it is not 8 times 5=40, but it is really 8 times 500=4000, because the 5 stands in the place of Hundreds.

Lastly, because the 8 in the Multiplicand stands in the place of the Thousands, it is therefore 8 times 8000=64000, and not 8 times 8=64.

The Sum of the particular Products, which gives the true Product, as before.

By what hath been already said, with a little Consideration had to the Examples, I presume the Learner may easily understand how to multiply whole Numbers with any single Figure. And when it is required to multiply with more than one; then so many Figures as there are in the Multiplier, so many particular Products there must be.

That is, all the Figures of the Multiplicand must be multiplied with every single Figure of the Multiplier, as if there were but one single Figure: and the Sum of all those particular Products, will be the true Product required. But in those Operations, great Care must be taken in setting down the particular Products (which arise by each multiplying Figure) in their proper places. Which will be easily done, if the following Directions be carefully observed.

Viz. { Always place the first Figure (or Cypher) of every particular Product, directly underneath the multiplying Figure. Or thus:

The First Figure (or Cypher) of the second particular Product must stand directly under the second Figure (or place) of the First Product; and the First Figure (or Cypher) of the Third particular

particular Product, must stand directly underneath the Third

Figure of the First Product: And so on until all is done.

Now the Reason of placing the first Figure of every particular Product in their Order, will be very obvious to any one that considers the last Example; wherein the Cyphers are only set down to shew the true Distance of the first Figure in each particular Product from the Units place. And altho' it is not usual to set down Cyphers in this manner; yet they are always supposed to be there: That is, their Places are always left void, as in the two following Examples; wherein I have placed Points instead of Cyphers.

EXAMPLE 3.

Let it be required to multiply 78094, into or with 7563.

78094 \{ Factors.}

234282	The First particular Product with	3
468564:	The Second particular Product with	60
390470	The Third particular Product with	500
546658	The Fourth particular Product with	7000

590624922 The Total, or true Product required.

EXAMPLE 4.

Suppose it be required to multiply 57498 into 60008.

57498 60008

459984 The Product with 8
344988.... The Product with 6000

3450339984=57498 x 60008, as was required.

Here you may observe, that I pass over the Cyphers, and only take care of placing the first Product of the last Figure, viz. of

60000 according to the foregoing Directions.

When there is a Cypher or Cyphers, to the Right-hand either of the Multiplicand or Multiplicator, for to both; in that case multiply the Figures as before; neglecting the Cyphers until the particular Products are added together; Then to their Sum annex so many Cyphers as are in either or both the Factors. As in these:

EXAMPLE 5.	EXAMPLE 6.	EXAMPLE 7
9 5 38	87600	785000
4600	79	5 690 0
57228	7884	7065
38152	6132	4710
43874800	6920400	44666500000

Take a few Examples without their Work at large.

75649×579=43800771
687000×356=244572000
530674×45007=23884044718
7901375×30000=237041250000
537084000×590700=317255518800000
102030405×504030201=51426405540261405
987654321×123456789=121932641112635269

Note, If it be required to multiply any Number with 10, 100, 1000, 10000, &c. it is only annexing the Cyphers of the Multiplier to the Figures of the Multiplicand, and the Work is done.

Thus
$$\begin{cases} 578 \times 10 = 5780. \\ 578 \times 100 = 57800. \\ 578 \times 100 = 57800. \\ 578 \times 10000 = 5780000, &c. \end{cases}$$

These Examples (being well understood) are sufficient to instruct the Learner all the Varieties that can happen in multiplying of whole Numbers, according to the Method generally practised: However it may not be amiss to shew here how Multiplication may be performed (with many Figures) by Addition only.

EXAMPLE.

Let it be required to multiply 879654 into 79863.

In order to perform this (or any Operation of this kind) by Addition only; you must make a Tariffa or small Table of the given Multiplicand, in this manner:

First, Make a small Column, and in it place gradually down-

ward the Nine single Figures; viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &6.

Then against the Figure 1, set down the Multiplicand (which in this Example is 879654) and against the Figure 2, set down the double of the Multiplicand, sound by adding it to itself; To this double add the Multiplicand, setting

down their Sum against the Figure 3. And so proceed on by a continued Addition until there be Ten times the Multiplicand in the Table; which if the Work is true, will be the Multiplicand itself with a Cypher to the Right-hand of it, as in the annexed Table. This being done, it will be easy to conceive, that the Figures in the small Column of the Table, do respectively represent those of the Multiplier: And that the Numbers against any of those Figures in the small Column, will be the true Product of the Multiplicand agree-

ing to any Figure of the Multiplier; as plainly appears by the

Work of this Example

Then

879654? The Factors as before.

Against
$$\begin{cases} 3, \text{ in the Table is} & 2638962 & =879654 \times 3 \\ 6, \text{ is} & 5277924 & =879654 \times 60 \\ 8, \text{ is} & 7037232 & =879654 \times 800 \\ 9, \text{ is} & 7916886 & =879654 \times 9000 \\ 7, \text{ is} & 6157578 & =879654 \times 70000 \end{cases}$$

The Product required 70251807402 =879654×79863

Note, This Method of Tabulating the Multiplicand, is both easy and certain; being neither subject to Errors, nor burden-some to the Memory, and therefore in large Calculations it may be found very useful. But for common Practice the useful Method (as in Page 18, &c.) is best, and to be preserved before this.

Most Masters that teach (and several Authors that write of) Arithmetick, do teach to prove the Truth of Multiplication, by casting away all the Nines that are contained in both the Factors, and their Product; but because that Method is very erroneous, as might be easily shewed; I shall therefore omit inserting it, and leave the Proof of Multiplication to the next Section, wherein (I presume) the Reason and Proof, both of it, and Division, will plainly appear.

Sect. 5. Of Division.

Division is a Rule by which one Number may be speedily substracted from another, so many times as it is contained therein.

That is, It speedily discovers how often one Number is contained (or may be found) in another: And to perform that there are required Two Numbers to be given.

1. The one of them is that Number which is proposed to be

divided, and is called the Dividend.

2. The other is that Number by which the said Dividend is to

be divided, and is called the Divisor.

And by comparing these Two, viz. the Dividend and the Divisor together, there will arise a Third Number, called the Quotient; which shews how often the Divisor is contained in the Dividend, or into what Number of Equal Parts the Dividend is then divided. Therefore,

Division is by Euclid fitly termed the measuring of one Number by another, viz. one Number is said to measure another by that Number, which when it multiplies, or is multiplied by it, it pro-

duceth. Euclid 7. Def. 23.

And, if a Number measuring another, multiply that Number by which it measureth, or be multiplied by it, it produceth the

Number which it measureth. Euclic 7. Axiom 9.

That is to fay, If that Number which divides another (called the Divisor) be multiplied with the Number which is produced by Division (called the Quotient) their Product will be the Number divided or Dividend. Whence it follows, that Division and Multiplication are the Converse and Direct Contrary one to another (as Substraction is to Addition) and do mutually prove the Truth of each other's Operations.

I shall therefore make choice of the foregoing Examples in Multiplication, in order (as I presume) to render the Business of

Division more plain and easy.

First, Let it be required to find how often 6 is contained in 24.

That is, to divide 24 by 6.

1.3

N.B. Always place down the given Numbers in this Order; First set down the Divisor, and to the Right-hand of it draw a crooked Line; then set down the Dividend, and to the Right of it draw another crooked Line, in which must be placed the Quotient Figure, or Figures as they become found.

Dividend.

Thus Divisar 6) 24 (4 the Quotient.

Here I consider how many times 6 there is in 24, and find it 4, viz. 4 times 6 is 24, therefore 4 is the true Quotient or Answer required.

This is apparent by Substraction, as in the Margin; where 24 the Dividend is set down, and from it 6 the Divisor continually substracted so often as it can be, which is just 4 times. Therefore 4 is the true Quotient or Answer required.

Compare this with the Example, Page 15.	be .		124
	rh t	1	6
	age		18
	this	-	12.
	are	3	6
	Exa		6
	Ŭ '	4	0

Corollary.

From hence it is evident; that Division is but a concise or compendious Method of substracting one Number from another, so often as it can be found therein; for if the Divisor be continually substracted from the Dividend, accounting an Unit (or 1) for each time it is substracted (as above) the Sum of those Units will be the Quotient.

All Operations in Division do begin contrary to those of Multiplication, viz. at the First Figure to the Lest-hand, or that of the highest Value, and decrease the Dividend by a repeated Substraction of each Product arising from the Divisor when multiplied into the Quotient Figure. And the only difficulty in Division of whole Numbers (or indeed of any Numbers) lies in making choice of such a Quotient Figure, as is neither too big, nor too little; and that may be easily obtained by observing the following Rule, which hath two Cases.

RULE.

Case I. As often as the First Figure of the Divisor is taken from the First Figure of the Dividend: So often must the Second Figure of the Divisor be taken from the Second Figure of the Dividend, when it is joined with what Remains of the First. And as often must the Third Figure of the Divisor be taken from the Third Figure of the Divisor be taken from the Third Figure of the Dividend, &c.

But if the First Figure of the Divisor cannot be taken from

the First Figure of the Dividend. Then;

Case 2. So often as the First Figure of the Divisor is taken from the Two First Figures of the Dividend, so often must the Second Figure of the Divisor be taken from the Third Figure of the Dividend, when it is joined with what remained of the Second: And so often must the Third Figure of the Divisor be taken from the Fourth Figure of the Dividend, &c.

That is, the Quotient Figure must be such, as being multiplied into the Divisor, will produce a Product equal to such a part of the Dividend as is then taken for that Operation: But if such a Product cannot be exactly found, then the next less must be taken, and ordered, as in the following Examples: of which let that in Page 16 be the first, wherein there was given 8569 the Multiplicand, and 8 the Multiplier. To find the Product 68552. Let us here suppose the said Product 68552, and 8 the Multiplier, both given; thence to find the Multiplicand. That is, Let it be required to divide 68552 by 8.

Dividend
Divisor 8) 68552 (Quotient when found.

According to the Rule, Case 1. I compare 8 the Divisor with b the First Figure of the Dividend, and finding I cannot take it from that, I then consider (by Case 2.) how often 8 can be taken from 68, the two first Figures of the Dividend, and find it may be taken 8 times; for 8 times 8 is 64, being the greatest Product of 8 (into any Figure) that can be taken from 68. I therefore place 8 in the Quotient, and with it multiply 8 the Divisor, setting down their Product underneath the said Two First Figures of the Dividend, substracting it from them, and then the Work will stand

Thus 8) 68552 (8

In order to a Second Operation, I make a Point under the next Figure of the Dividend, viz. under the 5, and bring it down underneath in its own place to the Remainder 4, which will by that means become 45. Then I consider how many times 8 can be taken from 45, and find it may be 5 times; for 5 times 8 is 40, I therefore place 5 in the Quotient, and with it multiply 8 the Divisor, setting down and substracting their Product, as before. Then the Work will stand

Thus 8)	68552 64.	(85
	45 40	

For a Third Operation, I make a Point under the next Figure of the Dividend, viz. under the 5, and bring it down, as before, proceeding in all respects, as before; and then the Work will stand

Thus 8) 68552 (856 64...

45
40

55
48

Lastly, I point and bring down the 2, viz. the last Figure of the Dividend to the Remainder 7, which will then become 72, and proceeding as in the other Operations, I find that 8 the Divisor can be taken just 9 times from 72, and the Work is finished, and will stand

Thus 8) 68552 (8569 64...

04	
45	
40	
55 48	
72	
72	•

The true Quotient is found to be 8569, being exactly the Eighth part of 68552, or the Multiplicand of the proposed Example of Multiplication. As was required.

The Reason of the Operations will be very plain to any one

that will a little confider of it, as follows:

Divisor

(8000. The First Quotient Figure. Divisor 8) 68552 This Product of the Divisor into the Quotient is 64000, viz. 8 times 8000; the Quotient Figure being always of the same Value or Degree with that Figure under which the Unit's place of its Product stands. The Second Quotient Figure. Divisor 8) 4 5 5 2 And here the Product is 4000, viz. 8 times 500, not 8 times 5. Substract (60. The Third Quotient Figure.

Also here the Product is 480, viz. 8 times 60, for the Reasons abovesaid. Divisor 8) Substract Now here the Product is but 72, viz. 2 5 times 8, because the 9 stands in the place Divisor 8) Substract

Remains (00) Now the Sum of all the several Quotients, viz. 8000 + 500 + 60 + 9 = 8569, as before.

If the Process of this Example be well considered and compared with that of Multiplication, Page 17, it will evidently appear to be only the Converse of that; for the particular Products are alike in both, only that which is last there, is first here; there they are added, here they are substracted. So that whoever understands the true Reason of the one, must needs understand the Reason of the other, and then Division will become very easy, although the Divisor consists of several places of Figures.

E X A M P L E.

Let it be required to divide 590624922 by 7563.

Dividend.

Divifor 7563) 590624922 (

Tis plain at the first sight, that 7563 the Divisor, cannot be taken from 5906, the like Number of Figures in the Dividend.

Therefore, by the Second Case of the Rule (Page 23.) there must be allowed Five Figures of the Dividend, viz. 59062 for the First Operation or Quotient; that so the First Figure 7 of the Divisor may be taken out of the two First Figures, viz. 59 of the Dividend, &c.

Them

Then I proceed (per Case 2.) and consider how often 7 may be taken from 59, and find it may be taken 8 times, for 8 times 7 is but 56, which I mentally substract from 59, and there remains 3; to this 3 I mentally adjoin the Third Figure of the Dividend, viz. 0, which makes it 30, out of which I must take the Second Figure of the Divisor, viz. 5, so often as I took the 7 from 59, which was 8 times: But that cannot be, for 8 times 5 is 40, which is more than 30, therefore 8 is too big a Figure to be placed in the Quotient; yet, hence I conclude, that the next less, viz. 7 may be taken without any further Trial. I therefore place 7 in the Quotient, and with it multiply the Divisor, setting down their Product under the Dividend, and substract it from thence, as in the other Example, and then the Work will stand

Thus 7563) 590624922 (7

In order to a Second Operation, I make a Point under the next Figure of the Dividend, viz. under the 4, and bring it down to the Remainder 6121, which will then become 61214, with which I proceed in all respects as I did before with the 59062, and find the next Quotient Figure will be 8, with which I multiply the Divisor, &c. and substrass their Product from the said 61214. Then the Work will stand

7563) 590624922 (78 52941 · 61214 60504 710

To this Remainder 710, I point and bring down the next Figure of the Dividend, viz. 9, which makes it 7109; now because the Divisor 7563 cannot be taken from 7109, I therefore place a Cypher in the Quotient.

And this must always be carefully observed, viz. That for every Figure or Cypher, which is brought down from the Dividend, in order to a new Operation, there must always be either a Figure or Cypher, set down in the Quotient. Then the Work will stand

Thus

Thus 7563) 590624922 (780

61214

7109

To this 7109, I bring down another Figure of the Dividend, viz. 2, and then it will become 71092; then I consider how often 7 can be taken from 71, &c. (just as at the first Operation,) and find it may be taken 9 times, therefore I set down 9 in the Quotient, and with it multiply the Divisor, setting down and substracting their Product, as before; Then the Work will stand

Thus 7563) 590624922 (7809

52941...

61214

71092 68067

3025

To this Remainder 3025, I point and bring down the last Figure 2 of the Dividend, which makes it 30252; then proceeding in all respects as before, I find the Quotient Figure to be 4, with it I multiply the Divisor, setting down and substracting their Product as before, and then the Work will stand

Thus 7563) 590624922 (78094

52941....

61214

71092 68067

30252

(00000)

Here the Work is ended, and I find the Quotient to be 78094, being the true Multiplicand of the proposed Example of Multiplication, Page 18.

That is, 7563 is contained in 590624922 just 78094 times, & c.

If the Work of this Example be considered and compared with the Rule (Page 22.) the whole Business of Division will be easy; for indeed the only Difficulty (as I said before) lies in making choice of a true Quotient Figure, which cannot well be done according to the Common Method of Division, without Trials, yet those Trials need not be made with the whole Divisor, (as appears by this last Example) for by the two First Figures of the Divisor all the rest are generally regulated; except the Second Figure chance to be 2, 3, or 4, and at the same time the Third Figure be 7, 8, or 9, then indeed respect must be had to the Third Figure, according as the Rule directs.

However, if those Trials are thought too troublesome, they may be avoided, and the same Quotient Figure may both easily and certainly be found by help of such a small Table made of

the Divisor, as was of the Multiplicand in Page 20.

EXAMPLE 4.

Let it be required to divide 70251807402 by 79863. See the Example of Multiplication, Page 20, and as there directed make a Table of the Divisor 79863,

1 mus,	
Divisor.	Dividend.
1 79863)	70251807402
2 159726	638904
3 239589	636140
4 319452	559041
5 399315	770997
6 479178	718767
7 559041	522304
8 638904	479178
9718767	431260
10/798630	399315
1-01/90030	319452
	310452
	(0,00000)

Quotient. (879654

The Work of this Operation I presume may be easily understood. For those Figures in the Table are the Product of the Divisor into all the 9 Figures; consequently those Figures in the small Column do shew what Figure is to be placed in the Quotient; without any doubtful Trials of the Divisor, with the Dividend, as before.

This Method of Tabulating the Divisor may be of good Use to a Learner; especially until he is well practised in Division; yea, and even then if the Divisor be large, and a Quotient of many Figures be required; as in resolving of high Equations, and calculating of Astronomical Tables, or those of Interest, &c.

Ш

Hitherto I have made choice of Examples wherein the Dividend is truly measured or divided off by the Divisor, without leaving any Remainder, being exactly composed of the Divisor and Quotient. But it most usually falls out, that the Divisor will not exactly measure the Dividend; in which case the Remainder (after Division is ended) must be set over the Divisor with a small Line betwixt them adjoining to the Quotient.

EXAMPLE 5.

Suppose it were required to divide 379 by 5.

5) 379 (754 the Remainder.

35 .

29

25

Remains (4)

EXAMPLE 6.

Again, Let it be required to divide 43789 by 67.

67) 43789 (653387 the true Quotient required,

402 . .

358

335

239

20I

Remains (38)

How such Remainders thus placed over their Divisors (which are indeed Vulgar Fractions) may be otherwise managed, shall be shewed farther on.

N. B. When the Divisor happens to be an Unit, viz. 1, with a Cypher or Cyphers annexed to it, as 10, 100, 1000, &c. Division is truly performed by cutting off with a Point or Comma, so many Figures of the Dividend as there are Cyphers in the Divisor; then are those Figures so cut off to be accounted a Remainder, and the rest of the Figures in the Dividend will be the true Quotient required, because an Unit or 1 doth neither multiply nor divide.

EXAMPLE 7.

Let it be required to divide 57842 by 100. The Work may stand thus, 100) 578,42 the Quotient required; or thus 100) 57842 (578,42) the same as before,

Hence it follows, that if any Divisor have Cyphers to the Right-hand of it, you may cut off so many of the last Figures

in the Dividend, and divide the other Figures of the Dividend, by those Figures of the Divisor that are left when the Cyphers are omitted. But when Division is ended, those Cyphers so omitted in the Divisor, and the Figures cut off in the Dividend, are both to be restored to their own places.

EXAMPLE 8.

Suppose it were required to divide 675469 by 5400, 5400) 675469 (125

Remains (4) But the true Remainder is 459.

Consequently the true Quotient is 125 3 409.

As to the manner of proving the Truth of any Operation, either in Multiplication or Division, I presume it may be easily understood, by what is delivered in Page 21, compared with the three first Examples of Division; for from thence it will be easy to conceive, that if the Divisor and Quotient be multiplied together, their Product (with what Remains after Division being added to that Product) will be equal to the Division. As in the Fifth Example, where the Dividend is 379, the Divisor is 5, the Quotient is 75, and the Remainder is 4.

I say, 75×5=375, to which add the Remainder 4, it will

be 379.

Again, in the Sixth Example, the Divisor is 67, the Quotient is 653, and the Remainder is 38.

Then $653 \times 67 = 43751$, and 43751 + 38 = 43789 the Di-

vidend, &c.

There are several useful Contractions, both in Division and Multiplication, which I have purposely omitted until I come to treat of Decimal Arithmetick. Also I have omitted the Business of Evolution or Extracting of Roots, until surther on; and so shall conclude this Chapter with a sew Examples of Division unwrought at large, leaving them for the Learner's Practice.

579) 43800771 (75649. Or 75649) 43800771 (579. 45007) 23884044718 (530674. Or 530674) 23884044718 (45007. 356) 244572000 (687000. 59000) 57659066400 (967434. 10000) 679543820000 (67954382. 79) 282016 (356965.

CHAP. III.

Concerning Addition and Substraction of Numbers of different Denominations, and how to reduce them from one Denomination to another.

SECT. I.

1. Of English Coin.

THE least Piece of Money used in England is a Farthing, and from thence ariseth the rest, as in this Table.

Note, When I. s. d. q. are placed over (or to the Right-band of) Numbers, they denote those Numbers to signify Pounds, Shillings, Pence, and Farthings.

l. s. d. q.

As 35 10 6 2. Or 35 l. 10 s. $6\frac{1}{2}d$. Either of these do signify 35 Pounds, 10 Shillings, 6 Pence, 2 Farthings.

The same must be understood of all the following Characters, belonging to their respective Tables, viz. Of Weights, Measures, &c.

2. Troy Weight.

The Original of all Weights used in England, was a Corn of Wheat gathered out of the middle of the Ear, and being well dried, 32 of them were to make one Penny Weight, 20 Penny Weights one Ounce, and 12 Ounces one Pound Troy. Vide Statutes of 51 Hen. III. 31 Edw. I. 12 Hen. VII.

But

But in later Times it was thought sufficient to divide the aforesaid Penny Weight into 24 equal Parts; called Grains, being the least Weight now in common Use; and from thence the rest are computed as in this Tuble.

Besides the common Divisions of Troy Weight, I find in Angliae Notitia, or, The Present State of England, Printed in the Year 1699, that the Moneyers (as that Author calls them) do subdivide the Grain.

Thus
$$\begin{cases} 24 & Blanks = 1 Periot. \\ 20 & Periots = 1 Droite. \\ 24 & Droites = 1 Mite. \\ 20 & Mites = 1 Grain, &c. as before. \end{cases}$$

3. Apothecaries Weights.

The Apotheraries divide a Pound Troy, as in this Table.

By these Weights the Apothecaries compound their Medicines: but buy and sell their Drugs by Averdupois Weight.

4. Averdupois Weight.

When Averdupois Weight became first in Use, or by what Law it was first settled, I cannot find out in the Statute Books; but on the contrary, I find that there should be but one Weight (and one Measure) used throughout this Realm, viz. that of Troy, (Vide 14 Ed. III. and 17 Ed. III.) So that it seems (to me) to be first introduced by Chance, and settled by Custom, viz. from giving good or large Weight to those Commodities usually weighed by it, which are such as are either very Csarse and Drossy, or

very subject to waste; as all kind of Grocery Wares. And Pitch, Tar, Rosin, Wax, Tallow, Flax, Hemp, &c. Copper, Tin, Steel, Iron, Lead, &c. Also Flesh, Butter, Cheese, Salt, &c. To these and the like (I presume, it was thought convenient to allow a greater Weight than the Laws had provided, which happen'd to be about a Sixth part more: For I found by a very nice Experiment, that one Pound Averdupois is equal to 14. Ounces, 11 Penny Weights, and 15½ Grains Troy. And it is now computed as in the following Table:

Drams.	њ
16=10z. Ounces.	14=a Stone
256= 16=116 Pounds. 28672= 1792= 112= 1 C. Hundred.	And $\begin{cases} 28 = \frac{1}{4} \text{ of } C. \\ 56 = \frac{1}{2} \text{ of } C. \end{cases}$
573440=35840=2240=20= I Tun.	$184 = \frac{2}{4}$ of G.

5. Long Measure.

As the least part of Weight came at first from a Wheat Corn, so (it is generally said) the least part of a Long Measure was at first a Barley Corn, taken out of the middle of the Ear, and being well dried, three of them in length were to make one Inch; and thence the rest, as in this Table.

Note, That forty Poles (or Perches) in Length, and four in Breadth, do make a Statute Acre of Land.

That is, 220 Yards, multiplied into 22 Yards = 4840 Square

Yards are a Statute Acre.

Chap. 3.

And according to the Transactions of the French Academy, Anno 1687, a Paris Foot Royal is = 12,8 Inches English; Six of those Feet make a Toise; and 57060 Toises = 25,184 English Feet, are the Measure of one Degree of a great Circle upon the Surface of the Earth. So that one Degree is 69 Miles and 288 Yards, which is very near to our Country-man Mr Norwood's Experiment made betwixt London and York, Anno 1635; who found that 367196 Feet = 69 Miles, and 958 Yards do make a Degree.

Degree. And not 60 Miles, according to the common received

Opinion and Practice of the Navigators or Seamen.

Hence, according to the French Account, the Circumference of the Earth (supposing it to be a true Spherical Figure) is 24899 English Miles.

6. Of Liquid Measures.

All Measures of Capacity, both Liquid and Dry, were at first made from Troy Weight, Vide Statutes 9 H. III. 51 H. III. 12 H. VII. &c. wherein it is enacted, that eight Pound Troy Weight, of Wheat, gathered out of the middle of the Ear, and well dried, should make one Gallon of Wine Measure: And that there should be but one Measure for Wine, Ale, and Corn, throughout this Realm. (Vid. Stat. 14 Ed. III. 15 Rich. II.) But Time and Custom hath altered Measures, as they have done Weights (and perhaps for one and the same Reason) for now we have three different Measures, viz. one for Wine, one for Ale or Beer, and one for Corn.

I have inserted Tables of each, as they are now computed by

Cubick Inches, and practifed in the Art of Gauging, &c.

The common Wine Gallon fealed at Guild-Hall in London; by which all Wines, Brandies, Spirits, Strong-waters, Mead, Perry, Cyder, Vinegar, Oil, and Honey, &c. are measured and fold; is supposed to contain 231 Cubick Inches, and from thence the rest are computed, as in this Table.

```
Cubick Inches.

| Cubick Inches. | Callons. | Sallons. | Sallons.
```

But Dr Wybard in his Tectometry, Page 289, doth suppose the Wine Gallon to contain but 224, or 225 Cubick Inches at the most, and pursuant to this Account an Experiment was made by Mr Richard Walker and Mr Philip Shales, two General Officers in the Excise. They caused a Vessel to be very exactly made of Brass, in Form of a Parallelopipedon, each Side of its Base was 4 Inches, and its Depth 14 Inches; so that its just Content was 224 Cubick Inches. This Vessel was produced at Guild-Hall in London (May 25, 1688.) before the Lord-Mayor, the Commissioners of Excise, the Reverend Mr Flamstead, Astr. Reg.

Mr Halley, and several other ingenious Gentlemen, in whose Presence Mr Shales did exactly fill the aforesaid Brazen Vessel with clear Water, and very carefully emptied it into the old Standard Wine Gallon kept in Guild-Hall, which did so exactly fill it, that all then present were fully satisfied the Wine Gallon doth contain but 224 Cubick Inches. (This notable Experiment I saw tried.) However, for several Reasons, it was at that time thought convenient to continue the former supposed Content of 231 Cubick Inches to be the Wine Gallon, and that all Computations in Gauging should be made from thence, as above.

The Beer or Ale Gallon (which are both one) is much larger than the Wine Gallon; it being (as I presume) made at first to correspond with Averdupois Weight, as the Wine Gallon did with Troy Weight: For (as I said before, Page 33.) one Pound Averdupois is equal to 14 Ounces 12 Penny Weights Troy, very

near.

And, as one Pound Troy is in proportion to the Cubick Inches in a Wine Gallon, so is one Pound Averdupois to the Cubick Inches in an Ale Gallon. That is, 12:231:: 14½ : 281½, very near the Cubick Inches contained in an Ale Gallon, as appears from an Experiment made by one Nicholas Gunton, General Gauger in the Excise, about 41 Years ago, who, by such a Vessel mentioned before in the last Page, did find the Standard Ale Quart (kept in the Exchequer, Vid. 12 Car. II.) to contain just 70½ Cubick Inches, consequently the Ale Gallon must contain 282 Cubick Inches, and from thence the following Tables are computed.

Ale-Measure.

```
Cubick Inches.

282= 1 Gallon.

2256= 8=1 Firkin.

4512=16=2=1 Kilderkin.

9024=32=4=2=1 Barrel.

13536=48=6=3=1=1 Hogshead.
```

Beer Measure.

```
Cub. Inches.

282= 1 Gallon.

2538= 9=1 Firkin.

5076=18=2=1 Kilderkin.

10152=36=4=2=1 Barrel.

15228=54=6=3=1=1 Hogshead.
```

N. B. This Distinction or Difference betwixt Ale and Beer-Measure, is now only used in London. But in all other Places of England the sollowing Table of Beer or Ale, whether it be strong or small, is to be observed, according to a Statute of Excise made in the Year 1689

Cub. Inches.

282=1 Gallon.

2397=8½=1 Firkin.

4794=17=2=1 Kilderkin.

9588=34=4=2=1 Barrel.

14382=51=6=3=1½=1 Hogsbead.

7. Of Dry Measure.

Dry Measure is different both from Wine and Ale Measure, being as it were a Mean betwixt both, the not exactly so; which upon Examination I find to be in proportion to the aforesaid old Standard Wine Gallon, as Averdupois Weight is to Troy Weight; That is, As one Pound Troy is to one Pound Averdupois, so is the Cubick Inches contained in the old Wine Gallon, to the Cubick Inches contained in the Dry or Corn Gallon.

Viz. 12: $14\frac{1}{2}$:: 224: $272\frac{1}{2}$, which is very near to $272\frac{1}{4}$, the common received Content of a Corn Gallon: Altho' now it is otherwise settled by an Act of Parliament made in April 1697,

the Words of that Act are these:

Every round Bushel with a plain and even Bottom, being made eighteen Inches and a half wide throughout, and eight Inches deep, should be esteemed a Legal Winchester Bushel, according to the Standard in his Majesty's Exchequer.

Now a Vessel being thus made will contain 2150,42 Cubick Inches, consequently the Corn Gallon doth contain but 2685.

Cubick Inches.

I observed amongst the Lead-Mines in Derbyshire, (Anno 1692) that the Miners bought and sold their Lead Ore, by a Measure which they call'd an Ore Dish; whose Dimensions I carefully took, and sound it

Thus Elength 21.3. Breadth 6. Depth 8.4.

Conse-

Confequently its Content is 1073,52 Cubick Inches, which is very near equal to 4 Corn Gallons, according to the above-mentioned Settlement.

Nine of those Dishes they call a Load of Ore, which if it be pretty good, will produce about 3 hundred Weight of Lead.

8. Of Time.

It is not an easy Thing to give a true Definition of Time; for (according to the Philosophick Poet)

Time of itself is nothing, but from Thought
Receives its Rise, by labouring Fancy wrought
From Things consider'd, whilst we think on some
As present, some as past, or yet to come.
No Thought can think on Time, that's still confest,
But thinks on Things in Motion or at Rest.

And so on, Vide Lucretius, Book I.

That is, Time only shews the Duration or Mutation of Things, a Year being the Standard or Integer, by which such Continuance or Change is computed. And a Year is that Space of Time in which the Sun (apparently) compleats its Revolution from any one Point in the Ecliptick (an imaginary Circle in the Heavens) to the same Point again, which, according to modern Observations, is performed in 365 Days, 5 Hours, 48 Minutes, 57 Seconds, 21 Thirds, &c. But a Second being the least part of Time that can be truly measured by the Motion of any Mechanical Engine, as a Clock, &c. (a Third being less than the Twinkling of an Eye) I begin the following Table with Seconds.

Seconds."

60=1' Minute.

3600= 60=1 ° Hour.

86400= 1440= 24=1 Day.o , "

31556937=525949=8765=365+5+48+57=1 Year, called

(a Solar Year.

But the common Year, usually called the Julian Year, doth confist of 365 Days and 6 Hours, and is divided into twelve unequal Months, called Calendar Months, whose Names and Number of Days are the Subject of every Almanack.

To these Tables it may not be amiss to give a brief Account of such Coins, Weights, and Measures, as are frequently mentioned in the Scriptures. As I have deduced them from those which seem to be the most Correct, inserted in the Index to the large Bible, Printed Anno 1702, and compared with those used in England, by the Lord Bishop of Peterborough [Cumberland].

The Hebrew Weights, compared with Troy Weight. Oz. Pw. Gr.

A Gerah = 0 . 0 . 10\frac{12}{20}

10 Gerah = a Bekah = 0 . 4 . 13\frac{1}{2}

2 Bekah = a Shekel = 0 . 9 . 3

100 Shekel = a Menah = 45 . 12 . 12

Note, A Shekel is said to be their Original Weight.

Their Coin \{ l. English Coin.

A Silver Menah = 7. I. 54 Weight 60 Shekels.

Talent of Silver = 357. II. 10½ Weight is 300 Shekels.

Talent of Gold = 5075. I5. 7½ The fameWeight menThe Gold Dram = I. 0. 4 tioned Ez. ii. 19.

The Roman Money mentioned in the New Testament.

A Denarius, or Silver Penny=7 d. 3 Farthings.

Asses of Copper=0. 3 Farthings.

Assertium=0. 1½ Farthing.

Quadrans=0. ¾ of a Farthing.

A Mite=0. ⅓ of a Farthing.

English Measure, Their Long Measure, compared with Yar. Feet. In. Pts. A Finger's Breadth= 0,912 4 Fingers=a Hand's Breadth= ; 3,648 0.0. 2. Hands=the least Span= 7,296 3 Hand's Breadth=the longest Span= 0.0. 10,944 2 Spans=the longest Cubit= 9,888 0 . 4 Cubits=a Fathom= 3,55-2 6 Cubits=Ezekiel's Reed= 3 · I . 11,328 400 Cubits=a Stadium= 243 . 0 . 10 Stadiums=a Mile= 2432 . 0 . 0 3 Miles=a Parasang= 7296 . 0 . Which is 4 English Miles and 256. Their

Their Measures of Capacity, compared with English Wine.

A Cotyla=	0		$0\frac{I}{2}$	3,037
A Log =	0		$O_{\frac{1}{2}}$	9,83
4 Logs = a Cab=	0		3.	10,458
10 Catyla's = an Omer=			6.	
3 Cabs = a Ha =				
2 Hins = a Seah =		•	4 .	5,
3 Seahs = an Epha =	7 .			15,
10 Epha's = a Chomer =	75	•	5 .	5,625

Sect. 2. Addition of Weights, &c.

The foregoing Tables being so well understood, as that you can readily tell (without pausing) how many Units of any one Denomination, do make one of the next Superior Denomination (especially in those Tables which are most useful for your Business) it will then be as easy to add or substract them, as to add or substract whole Numbers, due Care being taken in placing all Numbers that are of one Denomination exactly underneath each other. That is to say, in Money, place Pounds under Pounds, Shillings under Shillings, Pence under Pence, &c. Understand the like in Weights and Measures, &c. according to their several Denaminations: Then in Addition observe this Rule.

RULE.

Always begin with those Figures of the lowest or least Denomination, and add them all together into one Sum, then consider how many of the next Superior Denomination are contained in that Sum, so many Units you must carry to the said next Superior Denomination to be added together with those Figures that stand there; and if any thing remain over or above those Units so carried, that Overplus must be set down underneath its own Denomination: And so proceed on from one Denomination to another until all be sinished.

Example in Coin.

Let it be required to add 35 l. 14 s. 06 d. and 27 l. 02 s. 10 d. and 54 l. 13 s. 04 d. and 10 l. 17 s. 09 d. into one Sum. The particular Sums being placed, as before directed, will stand

as in the Margin following.

Then according to the Rule, I begin with the Pence (being here the lowest or least Denomination) and adding them all together, I find their Sum to be 29 d. that is 2 s. and 5 d. (for

24 d.

24=25. and 29-24=5) the 5 d. I fet down	1.	5.	d.
underneath its own Denomination, and carry the	35 .	14	. 06
2s. to the Place of Shillings, adding them and	27 .	02	. IO
all the Shillings together, I find the Sum to be	54 .	13	. 04
48 s. viz. 21. 8 s. I fet down the 8 s. under-			. 09
neath its own place of Shillings, and carry the			_
21. to the Place of Pounds, adding them and all	128.	08	. 05
the Pounds together, I find their Sum is 128 l.			
consequently the Total Sum required is 128/ 08	. 05	1	

Now, for as much as it often happens in keeping Books of Accounts, (and in other Business) that it is required to add up large Sums of Money, confifting of 30, 40, or more several particular Sums, nay, perhaps, filling up the whole length of a Sheet of Paper, I humbly conceive in those Cases the best and easiest way will be to part them into Parcels, not exceeding above 10 or 12 particular Sums in each Parcel; that done, add together all the Sums of those Parcels into one Sum, and that will be the Total Sum required.

Also to avoid the making of Points, or other Marks amongst your Figures, it will be convenient to get the following Tables

by heart,

The Penc	e Table.	The Shilli	ngs Table.
d. s.	d. s.	s. l.	. 5. 7.
12=1	72= 6	20=1	120= 6
24=2	84= 7	40=2	140= 7
36=3	96= 8	60=3	160= 8
48=4	108= 9	80=4	180= 9
60=5	120=10	100=5	200=10

The Use of these Tables is so obvious, that I presume it is needless to explain them.

Examples in Addition of Weights.

,		Troy	Weig	ht.			A	vero	lupois	Wei	ght.
		_	Pw.			Tun		C.	2.	16.	Oz.
	3	. 09	. 00	. 10		12	, 4	15	. 2	. 24	. 12
	5	. 08	. 15	. 21				-	-		- 15
			. 12								· II
	0	. 11	1 19	. 23		1	•	19	• 3	. 27	15
Sum	21	. 04	. 09	. 04	S	um 23		05	, 0	. 05	. 05

Examples in Addition of Long-Measure.															
Yards		Drs.		Nails	Mil	es	Fur.		Poles		Yards	F	eet		Inch.
35	•	2	•	3	2	•	6	•	32	•	4	é	2	•	9
17	٠	3	•	I	0	•	7	•	27		3		I	•	10
120		T	_	2	1		2		20		1		2		IF

182 . 3 . 2 Sum 5 . 2 . 10 . 0 . 4 . 6

I think it needless to set down more Examples of this kind, for if these 5 (especially the last) be well understood, they will be sufficient to shew how any other may be performed.

Sect. 3. Substraction of Weights, &c.

SUbstraction is but the Converse of the precedent Work, and may be performed by observing this Rule.

RULE.

Begin with the Lowest or Least Denomination (as before in Addition) and Take or Substract the Figure (or Figures) in that place of the Subtrahend, from the Figure (or Figures) that stand over them of the same Denomination; setting down the Remainder. (as in Page 12.) But if that cannot be done, then you must increase the upper Figure (or Figures) with one of the next Superior Denomination, and from that Sum make Substraction; and so proceed to the next Superior Denomination, where you must pay the one borrowed, by adding Unity to the Subtrahend in that place, &c. as in whole Numbers.

Examples in Coin.

	1.	ay g cate	5.	-	d.	-	 2 10 1 1	. 1.		5.	. d.
From	386	•	09		08		From	569		10	. 06
Take	173		04	•	06	Den't	 Subst.	389	,	15	. 08

Remains 213 . 05 . 02 179 . 14 . 10

The First of these Examples is self-evident. In the Second Example, beginning at the place of Pence (being here the Least Denomination) I am to take 8 d from 6 d but because that cannot be done, I must (according to the Rule) borrow one of the next Denomination, viz. 1s. and add it to the 6 d which makes it 18 d. (for 1s. = 12 d and 12 d. +6 d = 18 d then I take 8 d from that 18 d and there remains 10 d to be set down underneath the place of Pence; that done, I proceed to the place of Shillings, where I must now pay the 1s. saying one borrowed and 15 makes 16 from 10 cannot be, but

16 from 30 and there remains 14. That is, I borrow one of the next Denomination, viz. 11. and add to it the 10s. which makes it 30s. for 11.=20s. and 20s.+10=30) having fet down the Remaining 14s. underneath its own place of Shillings, I proceed to the place of Pounds, where paying the 11. borrowed, it will be 1 borrowed and 9 is 10 from 9 cannot be, but 10 from 19 and there Remains 9, and so on as in whole Numbers until all be finished; and the Remainder will be 1791. 14s. 10d.

This Example being a little confidered will render all others in

this Rule easy.

Examples in Weights.

Troy Weight.	Averdupois Weight.
oz. pwt. gr.	c. qr. lb. oz.
From 9 . 10 . 16 . 18 .	
Take 5 . 09 . 18 . 22	· Provided 14:3 : 18:12
Rests 4 . 00 . 17 . 20 Examples	2 . 2 . 24 . 14 in Long Measure
	miles fur. pol. yds. feet inches
From 78 . 3 . 2	$22 \cdot 3 \cdot 26 \cdot 3^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot 0 \cdot 9$
Take 29 . 3 . 3	18 . 6 . 29 . 4 . 2 . 11
Rests 48 . 3 . 3	3 . 4 . 36 . 4 . 0 . 10
T. a.	att in Time

Example in Time.

From 27 . 18 . 35 . 21
Substract 16 . 21 . 46 . 36
Remains 10 . 20 . 48 . 45

The Proof of Addition and Substraction in these Numbers of different Denominations, is the very same with that of whole Numbers in Page 13. I shall therefore refer you to that place, and omit repeating it here.

Sect. 4. Of Reduction.

BY Reduction, Numbers of different Denominations are brought into one Denomination.

That is, it alters or changes any Superior Denomination proposed, into any Inserior or Lesser Denomination Required;

still keeping them equivalent in value. And by that means they become fitly prepared for Multiplication and Division; which otherwise could not so conveniently be performed. Therefore the Business of Reduction is very useful in the Rule of Proportion, (commonly called the Golden Rule, or Rule of Three) especially to those who do not understand either Vulgar or Decimal Fractions. And it is thus performed;

RULE.

Consider how many Units of the Denomination Required, make one of that Denomination proposed to be Reduced (which is easily known by its respective Table) and with that Number of Units, Multiply the Denomination proposed, and their Product will be the Number Required.

Example in Coin.

Let it be Required to Reduce or Change 357 l. into Shillings, and those Shillings into Pence, which shall still be equal in value with the 357 l.

Multiply with 20 the Shillings in one Pound.

7140 = the Shillings in 357 l.

Multiply with 12 the Pence in one Shilling.

1428 714

85680 = the Pence in 357 l. as was Required.

Or 357 l. may be reduced into Pence, at one Operation; Thus,

Multiply with 240 the Pence contained in one Pound.

1428 714

85680 = the Pence in 3571. as before.

But when the Numbers proposed to be Reduced are of several Denominations, and it is required to bring them all to the Lowest; you must Reduce the highest or greatest Denomination to the next less, Adding the Numbers that are of that less Denomination together, then Reduce their Sum to the next lower Denomination, Adding together all the Numbers that are of that Denomination, and so proceed gradually on 'till all is done.

Ga

EXAMPLE.

EXAMPLE.

Let it be required to Reduce 375 l. 17 s. 10 d. 3 q, into one Denomination, viz. into Farthings.

The Work of this Example, and all other Operations of this kind, may be somewhat shortened by observing the following Method.

375 l. 17 s. 10 d. 3 q.
20 Multiply and Add in the 17 s.

7517
12 Multiply and Add in the 10 d.

15034
7517

90214
4 Multiply and Add in the 3 qrs.

360859 the Farthings as before.

Example in Troy Weight.

Suppose it be Required to Reduce 29 lb. 8 oz. 18 pwt. 21 gr. into the Least Denomination, viz. into Grains.

Thus,

Thus 29 lb. 8 oz. 18 pwt. 21 gr.

Multiply with 12 the oz. in 1 lb. and add in the 8 oz.

66

29

Multiply with 20 the pwts in 1 oz. and add in the 18 pwt.

7138 = the pwts in 29 lb. 8 oz. 18 pwt.

Multiply with 24 the grs in 1 pwt. and add in the 21 grs.

28553 14278

171333 the grs = 29 lb. 8 oz. 18 pwts. 21 grs.

These two Examples at large being well understood, may suffice to shew how all Operations of this kind are performed; either in Weights, Measures, or Time. I shall only insert a few Examples of each sort for the Learner's Practice.

1. În 23C. 3 qrs. 21 lb. 9 oz. Averdupois Weight; How

many Ounces? Answ. 42905 Ounces.

2. In 252 Eng. Miles, How many Yards, Feet, and Inches?

Answ. 443520 yds. = 1330560 Feet = 15966720 Inches.

3. In 1692 common Years, How many Days, Hours, and Minutes? Answ. 618003 Days, 14832072 Hours, 889924320 Minutes.

Note, a common Year = 365 Days, 6 Hours, see Page 37.

4. In 5786 Pounds, 17 Shillings, 9 Pence, Sterling; How many Shillings, Pence, and Farthings? Answ. 115737s. 1388853d. or 5555412 Farthings. That is, 5786l. 17s. 9d. =115737s. 9d. =1388853d. &c.

The next Thing will be to shew how to bring Numbers from a lesser to a greater Denomination, which by most Authors is

called (tho' very improperly)

Reduction ascending.

This Work is the Converse of the last, and is performed by Division. Thus,

R.U L E.

Consider how many of the Denomination proposed make one of the Denomination required, and make that Number your Divisor, by which divide the Denomination proposed; and the Quotient will be the Number required.

EXAMPLE.

EXAMPLE.

Let it be required to find how many Shillings and Pounds are contained in 85680 Pence.

The Pence in 1s: are 12) 85680 (7140s = 85680 d.

Again the Shillings in 1 l. are 20) 7140 (357 l. the Answer required.

Another Example in Coin.

How many Pence, Shillings, and Pounds, are contained in 264859 Farthings.

Remains (3) q. S Note, the Remainder is always of the same Denomination with the Dividend.

The last Quotient 275 l. together with the several Remainders, give the Answer required.

Viz. 275 l. 17 s. 10 d. 3 g. = 264859 Farthings.

Example in Troy Weight.

Suppose it were required to find how many Pwts. Ozs. and lbs. are contained in 171333 Grains.

Answ. 29 lb. 8 oz. 18 pwt. 21 grs. This and the last Example are the Reverse or Proof of those in Pages 43, 45.

1. In 42905 Ounces, Averdupois weight; How many Pounds, &c. Thus,

2. In 15966720 Inches; How many English Miles, &c.

Answ. 252 Miles, &c. as occasion requires.

There are many useful Questions may be answered by the help of Reduction only: As the changing of one fort of Coin for another; and comparing one fort of Measure with another, &c.

For Instance: Suppose one had 347 Rixdollars, at 4s. 6 d. per Dollar; and desired to know how many Pounds Sterling they make,

347
54=the Pence in one Dollar, viz. 4 s. 6 d. = 54 d.

1388
1735
20)
12)
$$18738 \, d$$
. (1561 s. (78 l.
67
161
73
(1) s.

Answ. 78 l. 1 s. 6d. Sterl. are = 347 Rixdollars.

Quest. 2. In 645 Flemish Ells; How many Ells English?

Note, 3 Quarters of a Yard English make one Ell Flemish, and 14, or 5 Quarters of a Yard, is an English Ell.

Therefore, 645

(6) d.

3 = the qrs of a Yard in I Ell Flemish.

grs in 1 Ell=5) 1935 (387 English Ells for the Answer.

Quest. 3. Suppose a Bill of Exchange were accepted at London, for the Payment of 400 l. Sterl. for the Value delivered at Amsterdam in Flemish Money at 1 l. 13 s. 6 d. for 1 Pound Sterl. How much Flemish Money was delivered at Amsterdam?

First, 11. 135. 6 d. = 402 d. the Value of one Pound Sterl.

at Amsterdam.

Then, $402 d. \times 400 = 160800 d. = 670 l.$ Flemish, and so much was delivered at Amsterdam.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Of Aulgar Fractions.

Sect. i. Of Motation.

A Fraction, or Broken Number, is that which represents a Part or Parts of any thing proposed, (vide Page 3.) and is expressed by two Numbers placed one above the other with a Line drawn betwixt them:

Thus, { 3 Numerator. 4 Denominator.

The Denominator, or Number placed underneath the Line, denotes how many equal Parts the thing is supposed to be divided into (being only the Divisor in Division). And the Numerator, or Number placed above the Line, shews how many of those Parts are contained in the Fraction (it being the Remainder after Division). (See Page 29.) And these admit of three Distinctions:

Viz. { Proper or Simple } Fractions. Compound

A proper, pure, or Simple Fraction, is that which is less than an Unit. That is, it represents the immediate Part or Parts of any thing less than the whole, and therefore it's Numerator is always less than the Denominator.

As \{ \frac{1}{4} \text{ is one Fourth Part.} \\ \frac{1}{3} \text{ is one Half.} \\ \frac{2}{3} \text{ is two Thirds, &c.} \end{art.}

An Improper Fraction is that which is greater than an Unit. That is, it represents some Number of Parts greater than the whole thing; and it's Numerator is always greater than the Denominator.

As \(\frac{5}{3} \) or \(\frac{9}{7} \) or \(\frac{41}{15} \) &c.

A Compound Fraction is a Part of a Part, confishing of several Numerators and Denominators connected together with the Word [of].

As $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$ of $\frac{2}{5}$, &c. and are thus read, The one Third of

the three Fourths of the two Fifths of an Unit.

That is, when a Unit (or whole thing) is first divided into any Number of equal Parts, and each of those Parts are subdivided

subdivided into other Parts, and so on: Then those last Parts are

called Compound Fractions, or Fractions of Fractions.

As for instance, suppose a Pound Sterling (or 20 s.) be the Unit or Whole; then is 8 s. the $\frac{2}{3}$ of it, and 6 s. the $\frac{2}{4}$ of those two Fifths, and 2 s. is the $\frac{1}{3}$ of those three Fourths; viz. 2 s. $=\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{2}{3}$ of one Pound Sterling.

All Compound Fractions are reduced into fingle ones, Thus,

RULE.

Multiply all the Numerators into one another for a Numerator, and all the Denominators into one another for the Denominator.

Thus the $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$ of $\frac{2}{3}$ will become $\frac{6}{60}$. Or $\frac{1}{10}$. For $1 \times 3 \times 2 = 6$ the Numerator, and $3 \times 4 \times 5 = 60$ the Denominator, but $\frac{6}{60}$ or $\frac{1}{10}$ of a l. Sterl. is 2s. As above.

Sect. 2. To Alter or Change different fractions into one Denomination retaining the same Value.

IN order to gain a clear Understanding of this Section, it will be convenient to premise this Proposition, viz. If a Number multiplying two Numbers produce other Numbers, the Numbers produced of them shall be in the same proportion that the Numbers multiplied are, 17 Euclid 7.

That is to say, If both the Numerator and Denominator of any Fraction be equally multiplied into any Number, their Pro-

ducts will retain the same Value with that Fraction.

As in these, $\frac{2 \times 2}{3 \times 2} = \frac{4}{6}$. Or $\frac{2 \times 3}{3 \times 3} = \frac{6}{9}$. Or $\frac{2 \times 5}{3 \times 5} = \frac{10}{15}$, &c.

That is, $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{4}{6}$. Or $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{6}{9}$. Or $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{10}{15}$ are of the same

Value, in respect to the Whole or Unit.

From hence it will be easy to conceive, how two or more Fractions that are of different Denominations, may be altered or changed into others that shall have one common Denominator, and still retain the same Value.

Example. Let it be required to change $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{3}{2}$ into two other Fractions that shall have one common Denominator, and yet retain the same Value.

According to the foregoing Proposition, if $\frac{2}{3}$ be equally multiplied with 7, it will become $\frac{14}{21}$, viz. $\frac{2 \times 7}{3 \times 7} = \frac{14}{21}$. Again, if $\frac{2}{7}$ be equally multiplied with 3, it will become $\frac{9}{21}$, viz. $\frac{3 \times 3}{7 \times 3} = 9$.

H

And

. . .

And by this means I have obtained two new Fractions, $\frac{1}{2}\frac{4}{1}$ and $\frac{9}{21}$, that are of one Denomination, and of the same Value with the two first proposed, viz. $\frac{1}{2}\frac{4}{1} = \frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{9}{21} = \frac{3}{7}$.

And from hence doth arise the general Rule for bringing all

Fractions into one Denomination.

RULE.

Multiply all the Denominators into each other for a new (and common) Denominator. And each Numerator into all the Denominators but it's own, for new Numerators.

Example. Let the proposed Fractions be \(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{4}{3}, \) and \(\frac{6}{7}. \)

Then, by the Rule,

Hence 420 is the common Denominator; and 140.168.315.360, are the new Numerators, which being placed Fraction-wise are $\frac{140}{420} \cdot \frac{165}{420} \cdot \frac{315}{420} \cdot \frac{360}{420}$, the New Fractions required.

That is, $\frac{140}{420} = \frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{168}{420} = \frac{2}{5}$ $\frac{315}{420} = \frac{3}{4}$ and $\frac{360}{420} = \frac{6}{7}$

Sect. 3. To bring mix'd Mumbers into Fractions, and the contrary.

MIX'D Numbers are brought into improper Fractions by the following Rule.

RULE.

Multiply the Integers, or whole Numbers, with the Denominator of the given Fraction, and to their Product add the Numerator, the Sum will be the Numerator of the Fraction required.

Example. $9\frac{4}{5}$ by the Rule will become $\frac{49}{5}$. For $9 \times 5 = \frac{49}{5}$. And, $\frac{45}{5} + \frac{4}{5} = \frac{49}{5}$, the improper Fraction required. Again, $13\frac{11}{15}$ will become $\frac{206}{15}$. For $13 \times 15 = \frac{195}{15}$.

And $\frac{125}{13} + \frac{11}{13} = \frac{206}{13}$. And so for any other as occasion requires. To find the true Value of any improper Fraction given is only the Converse of this Rule. For if $\frac{42}{5} = \frac{6}{5}$, as before is evident:

Then

M

Then it follows that if 49 be divided by 5, the Quotient will give 9 \$. And if 206 be divided by 15, it will give 13 11, &c. confequently it follows, that

If the Numerator of any improper Fraction be divided by it's. Denominator, the Quotient will discover the true Value of that

Fraction.

E X A M P L E S, $\frac{35}{7} = 5$. And $\frac{41}{2} = 4\frac{5}{9}$, And $\frac{121}{20} = 6\frac{7}{26}$. Or $\frac{15}{4} = 3\frac{2}{4}$, &c. When whole Numbers are to be expressed Fraction-wise, it is but giving them an Unit for a Denominator. Thus 45 is 45, 9 is \frac{9}{1}, and 25 is \frac{25}{1}, &c.

Sect. 4. To Abbieviate or Reduce Fractions into their Lowest or Least Denomination.

THIS is done, not out of any necessity, but for the more convenient managing of such Fractions as are either proposed in large terms; or swell into such, either by Addition or otherwise: besides it is most like an Artist to express or set down all Fractions in the lowest terms possible; and to perform that, it will be necessary to consider these following Propositions.

Numbers are either Prime or Composed.

1. A Prime Number is that which can only be measured by

an Unit, Euclid 7. Defin. 11.

That is, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, &c. are said to be Prime Numbers, because it is not possible to divide them into equal Parts by any other Number but Unity or 1.

2. Numbers Prime the one to the other, are fuch as only an Unit doth Measure, being their common Measure. Euclid 7.

For instance, 7 and 13 are Prime Numbers to each other, because they cannot be divided by any Number but an Unit. And 9 and 14 are also Prime Numbers to each other, for altho' 3 will measure or divide 9 without leaving a Remainder; yet 3 will not measure 14 without leaving a Remainder: Again, altho' 2 will measure 14 without any Remainder, yet 2 will not measure 9 without leaving a Remainder, &c.

3. A composed Number is that which some certain Number

measureth. Euclid 7. Defin. 13.

For instance, 15 is a composed Number of 3 and 5, for 5 x 3 = 15, consequently 3 or 5 will justly measure 15. Also 20 15 is composed of 5 and 4, viz. $5 \times 4 = 20$, therefore 5 and 4 will each justly measure 20.

4. Numbers composed the one to the other, are they which some Number, being a common Measure to them both, doth measure. Euclid 7. Defin. 14.

That is, if two or more Numbers can be divided by one and the same Divisor; then are those Numbers said to be composed

one to another,

For Instance, 14 and 21 are Numbers composed the one to the other, because they can both be measured or divided by 7. For $7 \times 2 = 14$, and $7 \times 3 = 21$; therefore 7 is a common Measure to 14 and 21. So that if $\frac{14}{21}$ were proposed to be abbreviated, it will become $\frac{2}{3}$.

Thus
$$\begin{cases} 7 \\ 7 \end{cases} \frac{14}{21} = \frac{2}{3}$$

And how those greatest common Measures may be found comes from Euclid 7. Prob. 1, 2, 3, and is thus:

RULE.

Divide the greater Number by the lesser, and that Divisor by the Remainder (if there be any), and so on continually until there be no Remainder left: Then will that last Divisor be the greatest common Measure (and if it happen to be I, then are those Numbers Prime Numbers, and are already in their lowest Terms; but if otherwise) Divide the Numbers by that last Divisor, and their Quotients will be their least Terms required.

EXAMPLE.

Let it be required to find the greatest common Measure of 72 and 108, viz. of $\frac{72}{108}$.

Therefore,
$$\begin{cases} 36) \frac{72}{36} = \frac{2}{3} \end{cases}$$
 Hence $\frac{72}{103}$ is abbreviated to $\frac{2}{3}$ the lowest Terms.

Again, to find the greatest common Measure of 744 and 899.

Here 31 is found to be the greatest common Measure by which 744 and 899 may be abbreviated to 24 and 29 their lowest Terms.

Thus, $\frac{3}{3}\frac{1}{1}$) $\frac{744}{899}$ (= $\frac{24}{29}$, &c.

Note, If the proposed Numbers be even, they may be brought lower by a continued halfing of them, so long as they can be halfed, viz. divided by 2.

EXAMPLE.

It is required to Reduce \(\frac{56}{84}\) to it's least Terms.

First, $\frac{2}{2}$) $\frac{56}{84}$ (= $\frac{28}{42}$. Again, $\frac{2}{2}$) $\frac{28}{42}$ (= $\frac{14}{21}$.

This done, you easily perceive that 7 will be the common Measure to 14 and 21, viz. $\frac{7}{7}$) $\frac{14}{21}$ ($=\frac{2}{3}$, &c.

If the Numbers proposed to be reduced have each a Cypher, or Cyphers annexed to them, they will be abbreviated by cutting off a like Number of Cyphers from both.

Thus, $\frac{150}{300}$ will be $\frac{15}{30}$. And $\frac{200}{300}$ will be $\frac{2}{3}$, &c.

That is, $\frac{150}{300} = \frac{15}{30} = \frac{1}{2}$. And $\frac{200}{300} = \frac{2}{3}$. And $\frac{360}{400} = \frac{36}{40} = \frac{13}{20} = \frac{9}{10}$.

Sect 5. Addition of Fractions.

WHAT hath been done by the Rules in this Chapter, is chiefly to prepare and fit Fractions of different Denominations for Addition or Subtraction, as Occasion requires, viz. If they are Compound Fractions, they must be reduced to Simple or Pure Fractions, per Rule, Sect. 1.

If they are of different Denominations, they must be altered or

changed, per Rule, Sect. 2.

That is, all Fractions must be brought into one Denomination before they can either be added or subtracted; and that being done, Addition is thus performed.

RULE.

Add together all the Numerators, and their Sum will be a New Numerator, under which subscribe the Common Denominator.

Examples ...

Examples in Simple Fractions.

Let it be proposed to add $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{2}{5}$, and $\frac{3}{4}$ together. First, $\frac{1}{3} = \frac{20}{60}$, $\frac{2}{5} = \frac{24}{60}$, and $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{45}{60}$, per Sect. 2.

Then $\frac{20}{60} + \frac{24}{60} + \frac{45}{60} = \frac{8}{60}$, the Sum required, which according to Section 3, is $1\frac{2}{60}$, viz. $\frac{89}{60} = 1\frac{20}{60}$.

Examples in Compound Fractions.

Let it be required to add $\frac{3}{7}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$ into one Sum. First $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$ becomes $\frac{6}{12}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ per Sect. 1. And (per Sect. 2.) $\frac{3}{7}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ is $\frac{6}{12}$ and $\frac{7}{14}$. viz. $\frac{3}{7} = \frac{6}{14}$, and $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{7}{14}$; but $\frac{7}{14} + \frac{6}{14} = \frac{13}{14}$ the Sum required, viz. 3 + 3 of 3 = 13.

Examples in mired Numbers.

It is required to add 5 \(\frac{2}{5}\) to 7\(\frac{3}{4}\), these per Sect. 3. will be \(\frac{1}{3}\) and \(\frac{3}{4}\). But $\frac{17}{3}$ and $\frac{31}{4}$ will become $\frac{68}{12}$ and $\frac{93}{12}$ per Sect. 2. Then $\frac{68}{12} + \frac{93}{12} =$ $\frac{161}{12}$, and $\frac{161}{12} = 13\frac{5}{12}$ the Sum required.

Or you may bring only the Fractions to one Denomination.

Thus, $5\frac{2}{5}$ and $7\frac{3}{4}$ will become $5\frac{8}{12}$ and $7\frac{9}{12}$.

Then $5\frac{8}{12} + 7\frac{9}{12} = 12\frac{17}{12}$. That is, $13\frac{5}{12}$. As before.

Sect. 6. Subtraction of Fractions.

RULE.

SUBTRACT one Numerator from the other (according as the Question requires) and their Difference will be a new Numerator, under which subscribe the Common Denominator, as in Addition.

EXAMPLE 1.

Let it be required to take $\frac{2}{9}$ out of $\frac{2}{7}$. First $\frac{2}{9}$ and $\frac{3}{7}$ per Sect. 2. will become $\frac{14}{63}$ and $\frac{27}{63}$; then $\frac{27}{63} - \frac{14}{63} = \frac{13}{63}$, that is, $\frac{2}{7} - \frac{2}{9} = \frac{13}{63}$. As was required.

EXAMPLE 2.

It is required to subtract $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{8}{9}$ from $\frac{13}{14}$. First, $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{8}{9} = \frac{16}{27}$ per Sect. 1. Again $\frac{16}{27}$ and $\frac{13}{14}$ will become $\frac{224}{378}$ and $\frac{351}{378}$. per Sect. 2. Then $\frac{3}{3}\frac{51}{78} - \frac{224}{378} = \frac{127}{378}$.

E X A M P L E • 3. From $6\frac{1}{8}$ fubtract $3\frac{10}{48}$. First, $6\frac{1}{8} = \frac{49}{8}$, and $3\frac{10}{48} = \frac{163}{48}$ per Rule Sect. 3. Again, $\frac{49}{8} = \frac{2352}{384}$, and $\frac{163}{48} = \frac{1304}{384}$, per Rule Sect. 2. Then, $\frac{2312}{38+} - \frac{1104}{38+} = \frac{1048}{38+} = 2\frac{280}{384} = 2\frac{35}{48}$. Or otherwise thus: First,

First, $6\frac{1}{8} = 5\frac{9}{8}$, then bring $\frac{9}{8}$ and $\frac{19}{48}$ into one Denomination, viz. $5\frac{9}{8} = 5\frac{432}{384}$ and $3\frac{19}{48} = 3\frac{152}{354}$.

Then $5\frac{43^2}{384} - 3\frac{15^2}{384} = 2\frac{280}{384} = 2\frac{35}{48}$. As before.

EXAMPLE.

Let it be required to subtract $\frac{3}{7}$ of $\frac{5}{9}$ of $\frac{2}{3}$ from 7.

First, $\frac{3}{5}$ of $\frac{5}{9}$ of $\frac{2}{3} = \frac{3}{189}$. And $7 = 6\frac{189}{189}$.

Then $6 \frac{189}{189} - \frac{30}{189} = 6 \frac{159}{189} = 6 \frac{53}{63} = 7 - \frac{3}{7}$ of $\frac{5}{9}$ of $\frac{2}{3}$. As was required.

If these sew Examples be well understood, the whole Business of adding and subtracting Vulgar Fractions will be easy; which is really much more difficult to perform than either Multiplication or Division; as will appear in the next Section.

Sect. 7. Multiplication of Fractions.

IN order to perform either Multiplication or Division, you must prepare the Terms to be multiplied (or divided) thus; reduce Compound Fractions to Simple ones, per Sect. 1. Bring mixed Numbers into improper Fractions, and express whole Numbers Fraction wise, per Sect. 3. Also it will be convenient to abbreviate them to their smallest Terms, when it can be done. Then Multiplication may be thus performed.

Rule. \{ Multiply the Numerators one into another for a new Nu-Rule. \{ merator; and the Denominators one into another for a new

Denominator. As in these

EXAMPLES.

- 1. The Product of $\frac{2}{5}$ into $\frac{3}{7} = \frac{5}{35}$. That is, $\frac{2 \times 3}{5 \times 7} = \frac{6}{35}$.
- 2. And the Products of $\frac{9}{16}$ into $\frac{20}{27} = \frac{180}{432}$. Or $\frac{5}{12}$.
- 3. Again, the Product of $\frac{7}{11}$ into $\frac{2}{5}$ of $\frac{5}{7} = \frac{70}{385}$. Or $\frac{2}{11}$.

For $\frac{2}{5}$ of $\frac{5}{7} = \frac{10}{35}$. Then $\frac{7}{11} \times \frac{10}{35} = \frac{70}{385} = \frac{2}{11}$.

4. Let it be required to multiply 6 with $3^{\frac{2}{5}}$. These prepared for the Work will stand thus. $\frac{6}{1} \times \frac{1}{5}^{2}$.

viz. $6 = \frac{6}{1}$ and $3^{\frac{2}{5}} = \frac{17}{5}$. Then $\frac{6}{1} \times \frac{17}{5} = \frac{102}{5}$, or $20^{\frac{2}{5}}$.

Or, otherwise thus $6 \times 3 = 18$. And $\frac{2}{5} \times 6 = \frac{12}{5} = 2\frac{2}{5}$.

Then $18 + 2\frac{2}{5} = 20\frac{2}{5}$. As before.

5. Let it be required to multiply 7 \(\frac{4}{9}\) with 5 \(\frac{3}{7}\).

First $7\frac{4}{9} = \frac{67}{9}$ and $5\frac{3}{7} = \frac{38}{9}$. Then $\frac{67}{9} \times \frac{38}{7} = \frac{2546}{63} = 40\frac{26}{63}$.

Now the Reason of this Rule for multiplying of Fractions, and consequently of these Operations, and all others performed by it; will be evident from this following.

Viz.

Viz. If $\frac{4}{2}$ be multiplied with $\frac{1}{3}$ according to the Rule, their Product will be $\frac{48}{6}$. But $\frac{48}{6} = 8$.

Now $\frac{4}{2} = 2$, and $\frac{12}{3} = 4$ per Sect. 3. But $4 \times 2 = 8$. Ergo, &c.

Sect. 8. Division of Fractions.

THE Fractions being first prepared as before directed, Division may be thus performed:

Rule. Multiply the Numerator of the Dividend into the Denominator of the dividing Fraction for a new Numerator: and multiply the other Numerator and Denominator together for a new denominator.

EXAMPLES.

1. Let $\frac{6}{35}$ be divided by $\frac{3}{7}$, viz. $\frac{3}{7}$) $\frac{6}{35}$ ($\frac{4^2}{105} = \frac{2}{5}$ the Quotient. That is, according to the Rule $6 \times 7 = 42$ the new Numerator, and $35 \times 3 = 105$, the new Denominator, &c. as above.

2. Let it be required to divide $\frac{20}{27}$ by $\frac{5}{12}$, viz. $\frac{5}{12}$) $\frac{20}{27}$ ($\frac{240}{135} = 1\frac{7}{9}$). For 12 x 20 = 240 the new Numerator, and 27 x 5 = 135 the new

Denominator.

3. Suppose it were required to divide $\frac{2}{11}$ by $\frac{2}{5}$ of $\frac{5}{7}$. First, $\frac{2}{5}$ of $\frac{5}{7} = \frac{10}{35}$. Then $\frac{10}{35}$ $\frac{2}{11}$ $(\frac{70}{110} = \frac{7}{11})$.

4. Let $20\frac{2}{5}$ be divided by $3\frac{2}{5}$; viz. $\frac{102}{5}$ by $\frac{17}{5}$:

For $20\frac{2}{5} = \frac{1}{5}$, and $3\frac{2}{5} = \frac{1}{5}$. Then $\frac{1}{1}$) $\frac{1}{5}$ (= 6 the Quotient.

5. Let it be required to divide 40 $\frac{26}{63}$ by 5 $\frac{3}{7}$.

First, $40\frac{26}{63} = \frac{2546}{63}$, and $5\frac{2}{7} = \frac{38}{7}$. Then $\frac{38}{7}$) $\frac{2546}{63}$ ($\frac{17822}{2394}$).

But $\frac{17822}{2394} = 7\frac{4}{9}$ the true Quotient required.

6. Suppose it were required to divide 13 by 5.

First, $13 = \frac{13}{1}$. Then $\frac{5}{7}$ $\frac{13}{1}$ $(\frac{91}{5} = 18\frac{7}{5})$, the Quotient.

7. Again, let it be required to divide 5/7 by 6.

 V_{iz} . $\frac{6}{1}$) $\frac{5}{7}$ ($\frac{5}{42}$ for the Quotient required.

N. B. From hence you may observe, that when any whole Number is divided by a Fraction less than Unity or 1, the Quotient will be greater than the Number proposed to be divided: But if any Fraction be divided by a whole Number, greater than 1, then the Quotient will be less than the Dividend: As in the two last Examples.

As to the Reason (or Proof) of this Rule for dividing Fractions: It is only the Converse to that of Multiplication, and will be very evident from this following.

Let $\frac{48}{6}$ be divided by $\frac{4}{2}$. Which according to the Rule is thus, $\frac{4}{2}$) $\frac{48}{6}$ ($\frac{26}{24}$ = 4. The true Quotient. Now $\frac{48}{6}$ = 8. And $\frac{4}{2}$ = 2. per Sect. 3. Consequently $\frac{48}{6}$ divided by $\frac{4}{2}$ is but the same with 8 divided by 2, viz. 2) 8 (4. The Quotient as before.

I could have inserted Geometrical Demonstrations, for the Rules of Multiplication and Division of Fractions; but supposing the Learner purely unacquainted with those kind of Demonstrations, I thought these might be more intelligible to him, especially in this place.

CHAP. V.

Of Decimal Fractions.

WHEN, or by whom, this excellent Invention of Decimal Arithmetick, was first introduced is uncertain; but doubtless it's Improvements, and the Perfections it is now in, is owing to latter Years.

Sect. 1. Of Natation.

IN Decimal Fractions, the Integer or whole Thing (whether it be Coin, Weight, Measure, or Time, &c.) is supposed to be divided into Ten equal Parts; and every one of those Ten Parts are supposed to be subdivided into other Ten equal Parts, &c. ad infinitum.

The Integer being thus divided (by Imagination) into 10, 100, 1000, 10000, &c. equal Parts, becomes the Denominator to the

Decimal Fractions.

Thus, 20. 100. 1000. 10000. 100000, &c.

Now these Denominators are seldom or never set down, but only the Numerators; and those are either distinguished, or separated from whole Numbers by a Point or a Comma.

Thus, 5,4 is 5 40. and 0,7 is 70. 35,05 is 35 500, &c.

But before we proceed further in Notation, it will be convenient for the Learner to confider the following Table, (taken out of the learned Mr Oughtred's Clavis Mathematica) which shews the very Foundation of Decimal Fractions.

Whole Numbers,							Dec	ima	l Pa	arts.		
5	4	3	2	Í	Ö,	1	2	3	4	5	6	
	Tens	Thousands.	Hundreds.	Tens.	Units Place.	Parts	Parts	Parts	Parts	Parts	Parts	
~	of Th	ands.	reds.		Place	of T	of a	of a	r of T	of I	sofa	C
Se.	oufani				60	en, 01	Hun	Thou	en T	00 T/	Milli	E.
	ds.		,			10.	dred.	fand.	boufar	boufar	on.	
G.	Tens of Thousands.	5.	5.		ace.	Parts of Ten, or To.	Parts of a Hundred.	Parts of a Thousand.	Parts of Ten Thousand.	Parts of 100 Thousand.	Parts of a Million.	7 8.770

By this Table it is evident, that as in whole Numbers or Integers, every Degree from the Units Place increases towards the left-hand by a Ten-sold Proportion: So in Decimal Parts every Degree is decreased towards the right-hand by the same Proportion, viz. by Tens.

Therefore these Decimal Parts or Fractions, are really more Homogeneal, or agreeing with whole Numbers, than Vulgar Fractions; for indeed all plain Numbers are in effect but Decimal Parts

one to another.

That is, suppose any Series of equal Numbers, as 444, &c. The first 4 towards the Lest is Ten times the Value of the 4 in the middle, and that 4 in the middle is Ten times the Value of the last 4 to the Right of it, and but the Tenth Part of that 4 on the lest, &c.

Therefore all or any of them may be taken either as Integers, or Parts of an Integer: If Integers, then they must be set down without any Comma or separating Point betwixt them thus, 444 But if Integers, and one Part or Fraction, put a Comma betwixt them thus, 44,4 which signifies 44 whole Numbers, and 4 Tenths of an Unit: Again, if two Places of Parts be required, separate them with a Comma thus, 4,44 viz. 4 Units, and 44 bundred Parts of an Unit, &c.

From hence (duly compared with the Table) it will be easy to conceive that Desimal Parts take their Denomination from the Place of their last Figure.

That is,
$$\begin{cases} ,5 = \frac{5}{100} \\ ,56 = \frac{56}{100} \\ ,056 = \frac{56}{1000} \end{cases}$$
 Parts of an Unit, &c. Cyphers

Cyphers annexed to Decimal Parts, alter not their Value. As ,50, and ,500, or ,5000, &c. are each but 5 Tenths of an Unit. For $\frac{500}{100} = \frac{3}{100}$. And $\frac{5000}{1000} = \frac{5}{100}$. Or $\frac{5000}{10000} = \frac{5}{100}$. Per Sect. 4. of the last Chapter.

But Cyphers prefixed to Decimal Parts decrease their Value, by

removing them further from the Comma.

Thus,
$$\begin{cases} ,5 = 5 \text{ Tenth Parts.} \\ ,05 = 5 \text{ Parts of a Hundred.} \\ ,005 = 5 \text{ Parts of a Thousand.} \\ ,0005 = 5 \text{ Parts of Ten Thousand, &c.} \end{cases}$$

Consequently the true Value of all Decimal Parts are known by their Distance from the Units Place; the which being once rightly understood, the rest will be easy.

Sect. 2. Addition and Substraction of Decimals.

IN setting down the proposed Numbers to be added, or subtracted, great care must be taken in placing every Figure directly underneath those of the same Value, whether they be mix'd Numbers, or pure Decimal Parts, and to perform that you must have a due regard to the Comma's, or separating Points, which ought always to stand in a direct Line one under another; and to the Right-hand of them carefully place the Decimal Parts, according to their respective Values, or Distances from Unity. Then

Rule { Add or subtract them, as if they were all whole Numbers; and from their Sum, or Difference, cut off so many Decimal Parts as are the most in any of the given Numbers.

EXAMPLES in Addition.

Let it be required to find the Sum of these following Numbers, viz. 34,5 + 65,3 + 128,7 + 95 + 87,8 + 7,9, which being stuly placed, will stand

EXAMPLE 2.

Let it be required to find the Sum of 25,854 + 34,578 + 9,076 + 13,907.

25,854 34,578 9,076 13,907 83,415 The Sum required.

When the Decimal Parts proposed to be added (or subtracted) have not the same Number of Places, you may for convenience of Operation supply or fill up the void Places, by annexing Cyphers. As in these Examples.

EXAMPLE 3.	EXAMPLE 4.	EXAMPLE 5
45,0700	574,678953	0,975642
50,7580	95,796430	,745257
123,0057	78,054600	,000598
74,7020	54,789000	,800700
24,8000	8,900000	,640530
318,3357	812,218983	3,162727

EXAMPLES in Substraction.

Let it be required to find the Difference between 45,375 and 74,284.

EXAMPLE 1. EXAMPLE 2. EXAMPLE 3.
That is, {From 74,284 From 437,5 Take 89,657 Take 57,875 Remains 28,909 347,843 17,1284

EXAMPLE 4.

Let it be required to find the Excess between 562 and 93,5784.

EXAMPLE 4. EXAMPLE 5.

That is, {From 562, From 345,7578
Take 93,5784
The Excess 468,4216

188,7578

Note, The two last Examples are supposed to be supplied with Cyphers, which if actually done would stand thus,

562,0000 93,5784 Remains 468,4216 As before, 188,7578 EXAMPLE E X A M P L E 6. E X A M P L E 7

From 0,547893 From 1,000000

Take 0,439758 Take 0,997543

0,108135 0,002457

The Proof of Addition and Subtraction in Decimals, is the fame with that of whole Numbers, page 13, &c.

Sect. 3. Pultiplication of Decimals.

WHETHER the Factors or Numbers to be multiplied are pure Decimals, or mixed. Multiply them as if they were all whole Numbers, and for the true Value of their Product obferve this

Rule { Cut off (viz. separate with a Comma) so many Places
of Decimal Parts in the Product, as there are in both
the Factors accounted together. As in these:

EXAMPLE 1.

EXAMPLE 2.

3,024 2,23 90 72 604 8 6 048 6,743 52 32,12 24,3 9 03 0 128 48 642 4 780,51 0

The Reason why such a Number of Decimal Parts must be cut off in the Product, may be easily deduced from these Ex-

amples. Thus,

In Example 1. It is evident, that 3, the whole Number in the Multiplicand, being multiplied with 2, the whole Number in the Multiplier; can produce but 6 (viz. $3 \times 2 = 6$). So that of necessity all the other Figures in the Product must be Deci-

mal Parts; according as the Rule directs.

Or, the Rule is evident from the Multiplication of whole Numbers only: Thus, suppose 3000 were to be multiplied with 200, their Product will be 600000; That is, there will be so many Cyphers in the Product, as are in both the Factors. (Vide page 18.) Now if, instead of those Cyphers in the Factors, we suppose the like Number of Decimal Parts; then it follows, that there ought to be the same Number of Decimal Parts in the Product, as there were Cyphers in the Factors.

Again, the Rule may be otherwise made evident from Vulgar Fractions, thus: Let 32,12 be multiplied with 24,3, and



and their Product will be 780,516 as in Example 2, above. Now $32,12 = 32\frac{12}{100}$. and $24,3 = 24\frac{3}{0}$. which being brought into Improper Fractions (per Sect. 3. page 50.) will become $32\frac{12}{100} = \frac{3212}{1000}$. and $24\frac{3}{10} = \frac{843}{10}$.

Then $\frac{3212}{100} \times \frac{243}{1000} = \frac{280516}{1000}$. per Sect. 7. page 55. But $\frac{280516}{1000} = 780\frac{516}{100}$. viz. 780,516, as before.

Any of these three Ways do, I presume, sufficiently prove the Truth of the abovesaid Rule, &c.

N.B. It sometimes falls out in multiplying Parts with Parts, that there will not be so many Figures in the Product, as there ought to be places of Decimal Parts by the Rule: In that Case you must supply their Defect by prefixing Cyphers to the Product; as in these Examples.

EXAMPLE 5.	EXAMPLE 6.
,2365	,9347
,2435_	,0236
11825	2082
7095	1041
9460	694
4730	,00081892
,05758775	

When any proposed Number of Decimals is to be multiplied with 10.100.1000.10000, &c. It is only removing the separating Point in the Multiplicand, so many places towards the Right-hand, as there are Cyphers in the Multiplier.

Thus, $,578 \times 10 = 5,78$. And, $,578 \times 100 = 57,8$. Again, $,578 \times 1000 = 578$. Or, $,578 \times 10000 = 5780$.

These things being considered, it will be easy to multiply Decimals, and determine their true Products. As in these sollowing Examples.

57,056 multiplied into 0,578 will produce 32,978368
7,6543 into 5,4246 will produce 41,52151578
0,56879 × 0,05674 = 0,0322731446
0,03246 × 0,02364 = 0,0007672544
87649 × 0,03687 = 3231,61863
94,35786 × 6,57869 = 620,7511100034
3,141592 × 52,7438 = 165,6995001296

Now it oftentimes happens, that it will be needless to express all the Figures of the Product at large, (especially, when the Factors have each of them many places of Decimal Parts, as in the two last Examples) only so many of them as may suffice for the intended Design; and yet the Product may be as true to so many Figures as are retained, as if the Factors had been multiplied at large. And such compendious Contractions are not only of Curiosity, but may also be found of great Ease and Use to the ingenious Practitioner; especially in resolving adsected Equations, or in calculating of Trigonometrical Problems by the Natural Sines and Tangents, &c. All which may be thus performed.

Viz. Set the Unit's Place of the Multiplier directly underneath that Figure of the Multiplicand, whose Place you intend to keep in the Product; and place all the other Figures of the Multiplier in a quite contrary Order to the usual way. Then in multiplying, always begin at that Figure of the Multiplicand which stands over the Figure wherewith you are then a multiplying, setting down the first Figure of each particular Product, directly underneath one another; yet herein you must have a due Regard to the Increase which would arise out of the two next Figures to the Right-hand of that Figure in the Multiplicand which you then begin with.

EXAMPLE.

Let it be required to multiply 3,141592 with 52,7438 and let there be only four Places of Decimal Parts retained in the Product.

If the proposed Numbers were to be multiplied at large they must stand in a direct Order as usual.

Thus, { 3,141592 } And would produce ten Places of Parts, as in the last Example.

But

But seeing it is required to have only sour Places of those Parts in the Product, set them down as before directed, and they will stand

Thus $\begin{cases} 3,141592 \\ 8347,25 \end{cases}$	The Multiplicand placed as before.		
-	The Product with a reverse Order.		
1570796	The Product with 5, regard had to 5 times 2. The Product with 2, increased with 9 x 2.		
21991	Product with 7, increased with $5 \times 7 + 9 \times 7$.		
1257	Product with 4, increased with 1 × 4+5×4.		
94	Product with 3, increased with 4 × 3.		
25	Product with 8, increased with $4 \times 8 + 1 \times 8$.		
165,6995	The true Product as was required.		

The Reason of this Contraction is very obvious from the whole Operation wrought at large.

	141592
	132736
	24776
1256	6368
2 1991	144
6 2831	84
157 0796	0
165,6995	001296

From hence it is evident, that all the Figures in the Square to the Right-hand, are wholly omitted in the former Contraction; and that the last single Product here, is the first there; consequently the Reason of placing the Multiplier in a reverse Order, must needs appear very plain.

EXAMPLE 3.

Suppose it were required to multiply 257,356 with 76,48 and to have only the entire Product of integers.

257,356 84,67	The fame at large $\left\{\begin{array}{cc} 257,356 \\ 76,48 \end{array}\right.$
18015	20 58848
1544	102 9424
. 103	1544 136
20	18014 92
19682	19682,58688

The chiefest Care and Difficulty that attends these Contractions, is the true setting down of the Units place in the Multiplier underneath the proper Figure of the Multiplicand, according to the designed Product. Viz. In Example 1. It was required to have four Places of Decimal Parts in the Product; therefore the Unit's Place of the Multiplier, was fet under the fourth Place of Decimals in the Multiplicand: And in Example 2, because it was required to have an entire Product of Integers only; therefore the Unit's Place of the Multiplier, was set under the Unit's Place of the Multiplicand. This, I say, being once rightly understood, will render the Method easy in Practice.

Sect. 4. Division of Decimals.

DIVISION is accounted the most difficult Part of Decimal Arithmetick: In order therefore to make it plain and easy, it will be convenient to resume what has been said in page 25.

Viz. The Quotient Figure is always of the same Value or Degree Viz. with that Figure of the Dividend, under which the Unit's ... Place of it's Product stands.

As for Instance, Let 294 be divided by 4.

This is not 7 but 70, because the Units

Place of 4 × 7 stands under the Tens Place
of the Dividend.

14 (3 But this is only 3.

12

Remains (2) Hence 73 2 is the Quotient,

Now if to the Remainder 2 there be annexed a Cypher (thus, 2,0) and then divided on, it must needs follow that the Unit's Place of the Product arising from the Divisor into the Quotient, will stand under the annexed Cypher; consequently the Quotient Figure will be of the same Value or Degree with the Place of that Cypher: But that is the next below the Unit's Place, therefore the Quotient Figure is of the next Degree or Place below Unity; That is, in the first Place of Decimal Parts.

Thus 4) 2,0 (,5

So that 4) 294,0 (73,5 the true Quotient required.

This being well understood, Division of Decimals may (in all the various Cases) be easily performed. However, that it may be rendered plain and easy even to the meanest Capacity, if possible; Let Division be again defined, as in page 21.

K

Viz.

Viz. If that Number which divides another, be multiplied with the Number which is quoted, their Product will be the Number divided.

This Definition alone (if compared with the Rule, page 61.) will afford a general Rule for discovering the true Value of the Quotient Figure in Division of Decimals.

Rule The Place of Decimal Parts in the Divisor and Quotient, being counted together, must always be equal in Number with those in the Dividend. And from this general Rule ariseth four Cases.

Case I. When the Places of Parts in the Divisor and Dividend are equal, the Quotient will be whole Numbers.

As in these Examples.

Case 2. When the Places of Parts in the Dividend exceed those in the Divisor; cut off the Excess for Decimal Parts in the Quotient. As in these Examples.

Case 3. When there are not so many Places of Parts in the Dividend, as are in the Divisor; annex Cyphers to the Dividend to make them equal. Then will the Quotient be whole Numbers, as in Case 1.

EX-

EXAMPLES.

Let it be required to divide 192,1 by 7,684, and 441 by ,7875.

Case 4. If after Division is finished, there are not so many Figures in the Quotient, as there ought to be Places of Parts by the general Rule; supply their desect by prefixing Cyphers to it.

EXAMPLES.

Let it be required to divide 7,25406 by 957.

957) 7,25406 (,00758 the true Quotient required.

6 699

5550
Again ,575) ,0007475 (,0013

 4785
 575

 7656
 1725

 7656
 1725

 (0)
 (0)

Note, When Decimal Numbers are to be divided by 10. 100. 1000. 1000. &c. that is, when the Divifor is an Unit with Cyphers; Divifion is performed by removing or placing the separating Point in the Dividend, so many Places towards the Left-hand, as there are Cyphers in the Divisor.

EXAMPLE.

10) 5784 (578,4 1000) 5784 (5,784 1000) 5784 (5,784

Note, These Operations are the direct Converse to those in page 62.

I presume it needless to give more Examples at large; only I shall insert a sew Dividends, and Divisors, with their Quotients, wherein are contained all the Varieties that can happen in Division of Decimals.

574)	493,066	(859		49,3066 (8,59
	483,066			493066,00 (85900
	49,3066			493,0665 (8590
5,74)	4930,66	(859	,0574)	,493066 (8,59

K 2 There

There is also a compendious Way of contracting Division, like that of Multiplication, page 64, by which much Labour may be faved; especially when the Divisor hath many Places of Decimal

Parts in it: And it is thus performed.

Having determined how many Places of whole Numbers there will be in the Quotient, if any at all; or if none, of what Value or Place the first Figure in the Quotient will be: Then omit, or prick off one Figure of the Divisor at each Operation; viz. for every Figure you place in the Quotient, prick off one in the Divisor; having a due Regard to the Increase which would arise from the Figure so omitted.

EXAMPLE.

Let it be required to divide 70,23 by 7,9863.

The Work contracted.	The fame at Length.
7,9863) 70,2300 (8,7938	7,9863) 70,2300 (8,7938
63 8904	63 8904
6 3396	6 3396 0
3 3904	5 5904 r
7492	7491 30
305	304 230
239	230 589
66	64 6410
64	63 8904
(2)	0 7506

The Work contracted I presume is so obvious (if compared with the same at large) that it is needless to give any farther Explanation of it.

Sect. 5. To Reduce Aulgar Fractions into Decimals, and the contrary.

A NY Vulgar Fraction being given, it may be reduced, or rather changed into Decimal Parts equivalent to it. Thus,

Rule Annex Cyphers to the Numerator, and then divide it by the Denominator, the Quotient will be the Decimal Parts equivalent to the given Fraction; or at least so near it as may be thought necessary to approach.

EX-

EXAMPLE.

It is required to change or reduce $\frac{3}{4}$ into Decimals.

4) 3,00 (,75 The Decimal Parts required.

That is, $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{75}{100} = .75$.

Again $\frac{1}{2}$ = ,5; thus 2) 1,0 (,5. And $\frac{1}{4}$ = ,25; 4) 1,00 (,25. Suppose it were required to change 4 into Decimals.

7) 4,0000000000 (,5714285714 &c. $=\frac{4}{7}$.

Note, When the last Figure of the Divisor, (that is, the Denominator of the proposed Fraction) happens to be one of these Figures; viz. 1.3.7. or 9. (as in the Example) then the Decimal Parts can never be precifely equal to the given Fraction; yet by continuing the Division on, you may bring them to be very near the Truth. As in this Example; Suppose it was required to change 1 into Decimal Parts.

13) 1,0000 (,07692307692307 &c. ad infinitum.

That is, 0,07692307692307 = $\frac{1}{13}$ fere. 90 78 120 117 30 26 40

And from hence it may be farther observed; that in these impersect Quotients, the Figures do return again and circulate in the same Order as before: as you may easily perceive they begin to do in the seventh Place of both these last Examples.

As at first. &c.

These being understood, it will be easy to find the Decimal Parts equivalent to any known Part or Parts of Coin, Weights, Measures, Time, &c. If you first reduce the given Parts of Coin, &c. into a Vulgar Fraction, whose Denominator is the Number of those known Parts contained in the Integer, and the given Parts it's Numerator.

Examples in Coin, &c.

1. Let it be required to find the Decimals of 16s. 6d. 16s. $=\frac{16}{20}$ of one Pound, and $6d. = \frac{1}{40}$ of 11.

But $\frac{16}{20} + \frac{1}{40} = \frac{33}{40}$. Then 40) 33,000 (,825 the Decimal Parts required: That is, 825 = 16 s. 6d.

Again, Suppose it were required to find the Decimals equal to 31. 13s. 4d.

Here

Here 3l. is 3 Integers, and 13s. $=\frac{1}{20}$ of 1l. and 4d. $=\frac{4}{240}$. But $\frac{13}{20} + \frac{4}{240} = \frac{160}{240}$. Then 240) 160,000 (0,666666 &c. Hence 3l. 13s. 4d. = 3,666666 &c. As was required.

2. What are the Decimals equal to 7 3 Inches, one Foot being

made the Integer.

First, 7 Inches are $\frac{7}{48}$ of 1 Foot, and $\frac{3}{4}$ of 1 Inch are $\frac{3}{48}$. But $\frac{7}{42} + \frac{3}{48} = \frac{31}{48}$. Then 48) 31,000 (,64583 &c. = $7\frac{3}{4}$ Inches.

3. Let it be required to change 8 Oz. 19 Pwt. 8 Grains into

Decimals; one Pound Troy being the Integer.

These being reduced into the least Terms, and added together,

will become $\frac{4304}{5760}$ of 1 Pound.

Then 5760) 4304,000 (,74722 &c. The Decimals required.

And thus may any proposed Parts of Coin, Weights, Meafures, &c. be reduced or changed into Decimal Parts; which perhaps may at first seem somewhat tedious in Practice, but being a little acquainted with them it will be found very easy; and the ingenious Practitioner will (with a little Consideration) soon find how to reduce them almost mentally; or with the help of a very few Figures, without the use of such large Tables as are usually inserted in Books of Decimal Arithmetick; or at most they may be contracted into such as these following, which if duly applied to those Tables in Chap. 3. will be found very useful.

Decimal Tables.

In English Coin.

0,05.... = 15. 0,0046667 = 1 d. 0,00104167 = 1 Farthing. 11. being the Integer.

Troy Weight.

0,05.... = 1 Pwt. 0,00208333 = 1 Grain. 1 Oz. being the Integer.

Apothecaries Weight.

0,125.... = 1 Dram. 0,04166667 = 1 Scruple. 0,00208333 = 1 Grain. 1 Oz. being the Integer. Averdupois Weight.

0,0625... = 1 Ounce 0,00390625 = 1 Dram. 1 lb. being the Integer.

Averdupois Great Weight.

0,25 = $\frac{1}{4}C$. 0,00892857 = 1 lb. 0,00055803 = 1 Ounce. 1 C. being the Integer.

Time.

0,04166667 = 1 Hour.
0,00069444 = 1 Minute.
0,00001157 = 1 Second.
1 Day, or 24 Hours, being made the Integer.

The Use of these Tables will be evident by the following E X A M P L E.

EXAMPLE.

Let it be required to find the Decimal Parts equivalent to 17s. 9d. 2 Farthings

First 0,05=1s. Therefore $17 \times 05 = .85 \dots = 17s$. And,004166=1d. Therefore,004166 $\times 9 = .037494 = 9d$. Also 2),004166 (=,002083= $\frac{1}{2}d$.

Consequently their Sum, viz. 0,889577=17s. 91 d.

Now to find the Value of Decimals in known Parts of Coin or Weights, &c. is only the Converse of the former Work, and

is thus performed.

Multiply the given Decimals with the Denominator of the Vulgar Fraction required: That is, multiply the Decimals with fuch a Number of Units as are contained in the next lower Denomination of that Kind or Species which your Decimal is of; and the Product will be the Number required.

EXAMPLE.

That is, how many Shillings, Pence, &c. = ,825. First, the next lower Denomination is 20, because 20s. make one Pound.

Therefore 0,825

20
Shillings 16,500 and Parts of 1 Shilling,

12
Pence 6,000 Answer 0,825 = 16s. 6d.

Again, What are the known Parts of English Coin equal to 3,666666 Decimals.

Here the 3 Integers are 3 Pounds. Then ,666666

Shillings $\frac{20}{13,333320}$ Answer 3,666666 = 3l. 13s. 4d. $\frac{12}{666640}$ Pence $\frac{33332}{3,999840=4 \text{ near.}}$

What is the Value of 0,74722 Parts of 11b Troy.

First, ,74722 Then, ,96664 Again, ,33280

12
20
24

1 49444 Pwts. 19,33280
7 4722

0z. 8,96664

7,98720

These collected are 8. 19. 8. very near.

And

And thus any proposed Number of Decimals may be turned or changed into the known Parts of what they represent, viz. Whether they be Parts of Coin, Weights, Measures, or Time, &c.

I have omitted inferting more Examples of this kind, because I take the Excellency, and indeed the chief Use of Decimal Fractions to consist more in Geometrical Computations, than in the common or practical Parts of Arithmetick, as will appear further on; although even in those they are very useful upon several Accounts; especially in the Computations of Interest and Annuities, &c. But of that more in it's proper Place. I shall therefore conclude this Chapter, with a Remark or two upon the Nature and Properties of Fractions in general.

If any given Number (whether it be whole or mixed) be multiplied with a Fraction either Vulgar or Decimal, the Product will be less than the Multiplicand, in such a Proportion as the multi-

plying Fraction is less than an Unit or 1.

That is; as the Denominator of the Fraction is to it's Numerator,

fo will the given Number be to the Product.

Therefore, whenever any Number is to be multiplied with a Fraction, whose Numerator is an Unit: Divide that Number by the Denominator of the Fraction, and the Quotient will be the Product required. Thus $12 \times \frac{1}{4} = 3$. And $12 \div 4 = 3$. Again, $12 \times \frac{1}{2} = 6$. And $12 \div 2 = 6$, &c.

From hence it follows, that if any Number be divided by a Fraction, the Quotient will be greater than the Dividend, by fuch a Proportion as Unity is greater than the dividing Fraction.

Thus $12 \div \frac{1}{4} = 48$, viz. $\frac{1}{4}$: 1:: 12:48, &c. But the Truth of these will be best understood after the next Chapter.

CHAP. VI.

Of Continued Proportions, and how to change or vary the Order of Things.

Sect. 1. Concerning Arithmetical Progression, usually called Arithmetical Proportion Continued.

WHEN any Rank or Series of Numbers do either increase or decrease by an equal Interval or common Difference; those Numbers are said to be in Arithmetical Progression.

As { 1.2.3.4.5.6.7 & c. } Here the Interval or com-7.6.5.4.3.2.1 } mon Difference is 1. Or { 2.4.6.8.10.12.14. & c. } Here the common Diffe-1.3.5.7.9.11.13. & c. } rence is 2.

And so of any other Series, whose common Difference is 3 . 4 . 5. 80.

Lemma 1.

If any three Numbers be in Arithmetical Progression, the Sum of the two Extremes (viz. the first and last) will be equal to the Double of the Mean or middle Number.

As in these, 2.4.6. Or 3.6.9. Or 3.7. 11. Viz. 2+6=4+4. Or 3+9=6+6. And 3+11=7+7. &c.Lemma 2.

If any four Numbers are in Arithmetical Progression, the Sum of the two Extremes will be equal to the Sum of the two Means.

As in these, 2.4.6.8. Or 3.6.9.12. Viz. 2 + 8 = 4 + 6. And 3 + 12 = 6 + 9. Se.

Corollary I.

From these two Lemma's it is easy to conceive, that if never so many Numbers be in Arithmetical Progression, the Sum of the two Extremes will be equal to the Sum of any two Means, that are equally distant from those Extremes.

As in these, 2.4.6.8.10.12.14.16. Then 2 + 16 = 4 + 14 = 6 + 12 = 8 + 10.

Or if the Number of Terms be odd, as these,

2.4.6.8.10.12.14.16.18.66.

Then 2 + 18 = 4 + 16 = 6 + 14 = 8 + 12 = 10 + 10.

Lemma 3.

Every Series of Numbers in Arithmetical Progression is composed of the Interval or common Difference, so often repeated as there are Terms in the Progression, except the first.

As in these, 1.3.5.7.9.11.13.15.17. &c. Here the Interval or common Difference being two, it will be 1+2=3. 3+2=5. 5+2=7. 7+2=9. 9+2=11. 11+2=13.13+2=15. 15+2=17. 80.

Corollary 2.

Hence it is evident, that the Difference between the two Extremes (viz. I and 17) is composed of the common Difference, multiplied into the Number of all the Terms, excepting the first.

As in the aforesaid Progression, 1.3.5.7.9.11.13.15.17.

The Number of Terms without the first is 8 \ Multiply

The Difference betwixt the two Extremes is 16

Proposition 1.

In any Series of Numbers in Arithmetical Progression, the two Extremes, and the Number of Terms being given, thence to find the Sum of all the Series.

Theorem 1.

Multiply the Sum of the two Extremes into the Number of all the Terms; and divide the Product by 2. The Quotient will be the Sum of all that Series. Per Gorol. 1.

EXAMPLE I.

It is required to find the Number of all the Strokes a Clock strikes in one whole Revolution of the Index, viz. twelve Hours.

Here 1 + 12 = 13 the Sum of the two Extremes. \times 12 the Number of all the Terms

13

Then 2) 150 (78. The Number of Strokes required

EXAMPLE 2.

Suppose one Hundred Eggs were placed in a Right Line a Yard distant from one another, and the first Egg were a Yard from a Basket; whether or no may a Man gather up these 100 Eggs singly one after another, still returning with every Egg to the Basket and putting it in, before another Man can run four Miles. That is, which will run the greater Number of Yards.

In this Question 200+2=202 Is the Sum of the two Extremes.

And x 100 Is the Number of all the Terms.

Then 2) 20200 (10100 { The Number of Yards he runs that takes up the Eggs.

Now 4 Miles = 7040 Yards { The Yards he runs that takes up But 10100 - 7040 = 3060 { the Eggs more than the other.

Proposition 2.

In any Series of Numbers in Arithmetical Progression, the two Extremes and Number of Terms being given; thence to find the common Difference of all the Terms in that Series.

Theorem 2.

The Difference betwixt the two Extremes, being divided by the Number of Terms less an Unit or 1. The Quotient will be the common Difference of the Series. Per Corol. 2.

EXAMPLE I.

One had Twelve Children that differed alike in all their Ages; the youngest was Nine Years old, the eldest was Thirty-six and a half; what was the Difference of their Ages, and the Age of each?

Here 36.5 - 9 = 27.5 The Difference of the two Extremes. And 12 - 1 = 11. The Numbers of Terms less an Unit. Then 11) 27.5 (2.5 The common Difference required. Consequently 9+2.5=11.5 The Age of the youngest but one. And 11.5+2.5=14 The Age of the youngest but two. And so on for the rest. *Per Corol.* 2.

EXAMPLE 2.

A Debt is to be discharged at eleven several Payments to be made in Arithmetical Progression. The first Payment to be Twelve Pounds Ten Shillings, and the last to be Sixty-three Pounds. What is the whole Debt, and what must each Payment be?

Per Theorem 1. Find the whole Debt thus:

12,5 + 63 = 75,5 The Sum of the Extremes.

1 I The Number of Terms.

75.5 7552) 830,5 (415,25 = 415 l. 5s. The whole Debt.

Then, per Theorem 2. find the common Difference of each Payment.

Thus 63 — 12,5 = 50,5 The Difference of the Extremes.

And II - I = 10 The Number of Terms less I.

Then 10) 50,5 (5,05=5l. 1s. The common Difference.

l. s. l. s. l. s.

Confequently 12.10 + 5.1 = 17.11 The fecond Payment.

l. s. l. s. l. s.

And 17. 11 + 5. 1 = 22. 12 The third Payment, &c.

EXAMPLE 3.

A Man is to travel from London to a certain Place in ten Days, and to go but two Miles the first Day, increasing every Day's Journey by an equal Excess; so that the last Day's Journey may be Twenty-nine Miles; what will each Day's Journey be, and how many Miles is the Place he goes to distant from London?

First 29 - 2 = 27 The Difference of the Extremes.

And 10 - 1 = 9 The Number of Terms less 1.

Then 9) 27 (3 The common Difference.

Consequently 2 + 3 = 5 The second Day's Journey.

And 5 + 3 = 8 The third Day's Journey, &c.

Again 29 + 2 = 31 The Sum of the Extremes.

10 The Number of Terms.

2) 310 (155 The Distance required.

There are eighteen Theorems more relating to Questions in Arithmetical Progression; but because they would require a great many Words to shew the Reason of them: I therefore refer the Reader to the Second Part, viz. That of Algebra, where he may find their Analytical Investigation.

Sect. 2. *Concerning Geometrical Propression continued; fometimes called Geometrical Progression.

WHEN a Rank or Series of Numbers do either increase by one common Multiplicator, or decrease by one common Divisor; Those Numbers are said to be in Geometrical Proportion continued.

As \{2.4.8.16.32. &c. here 2 is the common Multiplier. 64.32.16.8.4. &c. here 2 is the common Divisor.

Or \{2.6.18.54.162. &c. here 3 is the common Multiplier. 162.54.18.6.2. here 3 is the common Divisor.

Note, The common Multiplier (or Divisor) is called the Ratio; and it shows the Habitude or Relation the Numbers have to one another, viz. whether they are Double, Triple, Quadruple, &c. which Euclid thus defines.

Ratio (or Rate) is the mutual Habitude or Respect of two Magnitudes (consequently two Numbers) of the same kind each to other, according to Quantity, Eucl. 5. Def. 3.

Proportion (rather Proportionality) is a Similitude of Ratio's. Eucl. 5. Def. 4.

So that there cannot be less than three Terms to form a Proportionality or Similitude of Ratio's; and if but three Terms, the second must supply the Place of two, As in these 2.4.8. That is, 2:4::4:8. (of :: see page 5.)

Here 4 the middle Term supplies the Place of two Terms, to wit, of the second and third; 8 bearing the same Reason, Liken ess,

Likeness, or Proportion, to 4, as 4 doth to 2. viz. As 2: is to 4:: So is 4: to 8.

Lemma I.

If three Numbers are proportional, the Rectangle, or Product of the two Extremes; viz. of the first and last Terms will be equal to the Square of the Mean or middle Term. (20 Eucl. 7.)

As in these 2:4::4:8. Here $8 \times 2 = 16$ the Product of the Extremes.

And $4 \times 4 = 16$ the Square of the Mean. Ergo $8 \times 2 = 4 \times 4$.

Corol. I.

Hence it follows, that if the Product of any two Numbers be equal to the Square of a third Number; those three Numbers will be in Proportion.

Lemma 2.

If four Numbers are proportional, the Product of the two Extremes will be equal to the Product of the two Means, (19 Euclid 7.)

As in these, 2:4::8:16. Here $16 \times 2 = 32$. And $8 \times 4 = 32$. Consequently $16 \times 2 = 8 \times 4$.

Corol. 2.

From hence it follows, that if the Product of any two Numbers, be equal to the Product of any other two Numbers, those four Numbers are Proportionals.

And from these two Lemma's it will be easy to conceive, that if never so many Numbers are in continued Proportion; the Product of the two Extremes, will be equal to the Product of any two Means, that are equally distant from the Extremes.

As in these 2 . 4 . 8 . 16 . 32 . 64. &c.

Here $64 \times 2 = 32 \times 4 = 16 \times 8$. &c. And if the Number of Terms be odd,

As in these 2.4.8.16.32.64.128. &c. Then $128 \times 2 = 64 \times 4 = 32 \times 8 = 16 \times 16$.

Note, The Character made Use of to signify continued Propor-

In every Series of :: (viz. of continued Proportionals) that Number which is compared to another, is called the Antecedent of the Ratio; and that Number to which it is compared, is called it's Confequent.

As in these, 2:4::4:8. Here 2 is the Antecedent, and 4 is the Consequent; and 4 the middle Term is an Antecedent to 8 it's Consequent: whence it follows, that in every Series of : all the middle Terms between the first and last are both Antecedents and Consequents.

As in these, 2.4.8.16.32.64. &c. Here 4.8.16.32.

are both Consequents and Antecedents.

For 2:4::4:8::8:16::16:32::32:64. &c.

So that all the Terms except the last are Antecedents. And all the Terms except the first are Consequents.

Lemma 3.

If never so many Numbers are proportional, it will be: As any one of the Antecedents is to it's Consquent: So will the Sum of all the Antecedents be; to the Sum of all the Consequents. (12 Euclid 5.)

That is, in the foregoing Series.

2:4::2+4+8+16+32:4+8+16+32+64. For it is evident, that 4+8+16+32+64, the Sum of all the Consequents, is double to 2+4+8+16+32 the Sum of all the Antecedents; as 4 is to 2, according to the Ratio, and would have been Triple, or Quadruple, &c. had the Ratio been 3 or 4, &c.

Note, In every Series of : the Ratio is found by dividing any of the Consequents by it's Antecedent.

As in these 2:6:6:18::18:54::54:162.

Here 2) 6 (3 the Ratio. Or 6) 18 (3 &c.

From the second and third Lemma's may be raised two general Theorems or Rules, for finding the Sum of any Series in :: without a continued Addition of all the Terms.

Let the Series 2 . 4 . 8 . 16 . 32 . 64 . 128. be given, to find it's Sum.

Suppose z = the Sum of all the Terms.

Then will z - 128 = the Sum of all the Antecedents.

And z - 2 = the Sum of all the Confequents.

But 2:4::z-128:z-2. per Lemma 3. Ergo 4z-512=2z-4. per Lemma 2.

Consequently

Confequently 4z-2z=512-4.

Theorem. $z = \frac{512-4}{4-2}$ In Words at length thus,

Theorem 1. From the Product of the second and last Terms

substract the Square of the first Term, and that Remainder being divided by the second Term less the

first, will give the Sum of all the Series.

Or if the first Term, the common Ratio, and the last Term be only given. Then,

Theorem 2.

Multiply the last Term into the Ratio, and from their Product substract the first Term; divide that Remainder by the Ratio less Unity or 1, and it will give the Sum of all the Series.

For 4z-2z=512-4. As above. Consequently 2z-z=256-2. viz. the last divided by 2.

Then $z = \frac{256-2}{2-1}$ Theorem 2.

EXAMPLE.

Let 2.6.18.54.162.486. be the given Series. Here 2 is the first Term, 3 is the Ratio, and 486 the last Term.

But $486 \times 3 = 1458$. And 1458 - 2 = 1456. Then 3 - 1 = 2) 1456 (728 the Sum required. That is, 728 = 2 + 6 + 18 + 54 + 162 + 486.

Since in either of these Theorems it is required to have the last Term known (the which in a long Series of :;, will be very tedious to come at by a continued Multiplication) it will therefore be convenient to shew how to obtain either the last Term or any other Term, whose Place is assigned, without producing all the Terms.

In order to that, it will be necessary to premise the Coherence or Similitude that is betwixt Numbers in Arithmetical Progression and those in Geometrical Proportion.

If to any Series of Numbers in :, when the first Term is not an Unit or I, there be affigned a Series of Numbers in Arithmetical Progression, beginning with an Unit or I, and whose common Difference is I. called Indices or Exponents.

Then will the Addition or Substraction of any two of those Indices (or Numbers in Arithmetical Progression) directly correspond with the Product, or Quotient of their respective Terms in the Series of ::.

That is,
$$\begin{cases} As & 3+4=7. \\ So & 8 \times 16 = 128 \text{ the feventh Term in } \vdots \end{cases}$$

Again, $\begin{cases} As & 6+4=10. \\ So & 64 \times 16 = 1024. \end{cases}$ the tenth Term in \vdots
Or, $\begin{cases} As & 7-3=4. \\ So & 128 \div 8=16. \end{cases}$ Or, $\begin{cases} As & 6-2=4. \\ So & 64 \div 4=16. \end{cases}$

But if the Series of : begin with an Unit, the Indices must begin with a Cypher.

Now by the help of the Indices, and a few of the first Terms in any Series of ; it is plain that any Term whose Place or Distance from the first Term is assigned, may be speedily obtained without producing the whole Series.

EXAMPLE 1.

A Man bought a Horse, and was to give a Farthing for the first Nail, two for the second, sour for the third, &c. in :, the Number of Nails was to be 7 in every Shoe, viz. 28 Nails in all. What must be have paid for the Horse?

First,
$$\begin{cases} 0.1.2.3.4.5. & \text{Indices} \\ 1.2.4.8.16.32. & \text{Farthings in} \\ 1.2.4.8.16.32. & \text{Farthings in} \\ 1.2.4.8.16.32. & \text{Farthings in} \\ 10.4.10 = 20 \\ 10.24 \times 10.24 = 10.48576 \end{cases}$$

Again, $\begin{cases} 10 + 10 = 20 \\ 10.24 \times 10.24 = 10.48576 \end{cases}$

Again, $\begin{cases} 4+3=7 \\ 16 \times 8=128 \end{cases}$

Laftly, $\begin{cases} 20 + 7 = 27 \\ 10.48576 \times 12.8 = 13.4217728 \end{cases}$

Which is here to be accounted the 28 and last Term. Because the first Term in the Series is 1, which doth neither multiply nor divide.

Now this 134217728 being the Number of Farthings to be paid for the last Nail, by it the common Ratio which is 2, and the first Term which is 1, may be found the Sum of all the Series, per Theorem 2.

134217728

268435456 From this Product substract 1.

Viz. 268435456-1=268435455. Then 2-1=1 the Divisor.

Consequently 268435455 is the Sum of all the Series, or Price of the Horse in Farthings, which being brought into Pounds, (See page 46) will be 279620 l. 5 s. 3 d. 3 qrs.

EXAMPLE 2.

A cunning Servant, agreed with a Master (unskilled in Numbers) to serve him Eleven Years without any other Reward for his Service but the Produce of one Wheat Corn for the first Year; and that Product to be sowed the second Year, and so on from Year to Year until the end of the Time, allowing the Increase to be but in a ten-fold Proportion.

It is required to find the Sum of the whole Produce.

First { 1 . 2 . 3 . 4 . 5. Indices or Years. 10.100.1000.10000.100000 Wheat Corns in ::

Then $\begin{cases} As 4 + 2 = 6. \\ So 10000 \times 100 = 10000000. \text{ the 6th Year's Produce.} \end{cases}$

And $\begin{cases} 6+5=11. \\ 1000000 \times 100000 = 100000000000. \end{cases}$ The eleventh or last Year's Produce.

Then (either by Theorem 1, or 2) the Sum of all the Series will be IIIIIIIIII Corns. Now it may be computed from Page 31 and 34, that 7680 Wheat Corns, round and dry out of the middle of the Ear, will fill a Statute Pint. If so,

Then 7680) 11111111110 (14467592 Pints, but 64 Pints

are contained in a Bushel.

Therefore 64) 14467592 (226056 Bushels. Suppose it to be fold for 3 Shillings the Bushel;

Then $\begin{cases} 226056\frac{1}{8} \\ 3 \end{cases}$

Shillings - $678168\frac{3}{8}$ = 339081. 8s. $4\frac{1}{2}d$. A very good Recompence for Eleven Years Service.

There are several pretty Questions resolved by Numbers in Arithmetical Progression, and by those in ..., which the ingenious Learner will easily perceive hereaster; viz. When we come to the Solution of Questions relating to Interest and Annuities, &c.

There is also a third Kind of Proportion, called Muncal, which being but of little or no common Use, I shall therefore

give but a short Account of it.

Musical Proportion or Habitude is, when of three Numbers; the first hath the same Proportion to the third, as the Difference between the first and second hath to the Difference between the second and third.

If there are four Numbers in Musical Proportion; The first will have the same Proportion to the fourth, as the Difference between the first and second hath to the Difference between the third and fourth.

As in these 8. 14. 21. 84.
Here
$$8:84::14-8=6:84-21=63$$
.
That is, $8:84::6:63$.

The Metbod of finding out Numbers in Musical Proportion, is best expressed by Letters; as shall be shewed in the Algebraick Part.

Sect. 3. How to Change or Mary the Order of Things, &c.

THIS being a Thing not treated of in any common Books of Arithmetick (that I have had the Opportunity of perufing), made me think it would be acceptable to the young Learner, to know how oft it is possible to vary or change the Order or Position of any proposed Number of Things.

As how many feveral Changes may be rung upon any proposed Number of Bells; or how many several Variations may be made of any determined Number of Letters, or any other Things

proposed to be varied.

The Method of finding out the Number of Changes is by a continual Multiplication of all the Terms in a Series of Arithmetical Progressions, whose first Term and common Difference is Unity or 1. And the last Term the Number of Things proposed to be varied, viz. 1 x 2 x 3 x 4 x 5 x 6 x 7, &c. As will appear from what follows.

r. If the Things proposed to be varied are only two, they admit of a double Position (as to Order of Place) and no more.

Thus,
$$\left\{\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{array}\right\} = 2 = 1 \times 2.$$

2. And if three Things are proposed to be varied, they may

be changed fix several Ways (as to their Order of Place) and no more,

For, beginning with 1, there will be $\begin{cases} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{cases}$ Next, beginning with 2, there will be $\begin{cases} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{cases}$ Again, beginning with 3, it will be $\begin{cases} 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{cases}$

Which in all make 6 or 3 Times 2, viz. $1 \times 2 \times 3 = 6$

Suppose four Things are proposed to be varied; Then they will admit of 24 several Changes, as to their Order of different Places.

For beginning the Order with 1 it will be $\begin{cases} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 4 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 & 3 & 2 \end{cases}$ Here is fix different Changes.

And for the same Reason there will be 6 different Changes, when 2 begins the Order, and as many when 3 and 4 begins the Order; which in all is $24 = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4$. And by this Method of proceeding, it may be made evident, that 5 Things admit of 120 several Variations or Changes; and 6 Things of 720, &c. As in this following Table.

The Number of Things proposed to be varied.	The manner how their several Variations are produced.	The different Changes or Variations every one of the proposed Numbers can admit of.
I	1	= 1
2	1 × 2	= 2
3	2 × 3	= 6
4	6 × 4	= 24
5 6	24 × 5	= 120
6	120 x 6	= 720
7 8	720 × 7	= 5040
8	5040 x 8	= 40320
9	40320 x 9	= 362880
10	362880 × 10	= 3628800
11	3628800 x 11	= 39916800
12	39916800 x 12	= 479001600
<i>ઉ</i> .	छिट.	છે.

These may be thus continued on to any assigned Number. Suppose to 24 the Number of Letters in the Alphabet, which will admit of 620448401733239439360000 several Variations.

From these Computations may be started several pretty, and

indeed, very strange Questions.

EXAMPLES.

Six Gentlemen, that were travelling, met together by Chance at a certain Inn upon the Road, where they were so pleased with their Host, and each other's Company, that in a Frolick they made a Contract to stay at that Place, so long as they, together with their Host, could sit every Day in a different Order or Position at Dinner; which by the foregoing Computations will be found near 14 Years. For they being made 7 with their Host, will admit of 5040 different Positions; but 5040 being divided by 365 \frac{1}{4} (the Number of the Days in one Year) will give 13 Years and 291 Days. A very pretty Frolick indeed.

I have been told, that before the Fire of London (which happened Anno 1666) there were 12 Bells in St Mary Le Bow's Church in Cheapside, London. Suppose it were required to tell how many several Changes might have been rung upon those 12 Bells; and at a moderate Computation how long all those Changes would have been ringing but once over.

First, $1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6 \times 7 \times 8 \times 9 \times 10 \times 11 \times 12 = 479001600$, the Number of Changes.

Then supposing there might be rung 10 Changes in one Minute: viz. 12 x 10 = 120 Strokes in a Minute, which is 2 Strokes in a Second of Time: Now according to that Rate there must be allowed 47900160 Minutes to ring them once over in all their different Changes; viz. 10) 479001600 (47900160.

In one Year there is 365 Days, 5 Hours, and 49 Minutes;

which, being reduced into Minutes, is 525949.

Then 525949) 47900160 (91 Years and 26 Days.

So long would those 12 Bells have been continually ringing without any Intermission, before all their different Changes could have been truly rung but once over. It is strange, and seems almost incredible, that a few Things should produce such Varieties.

But that which feems yet more strange and surprising (yea, even impossible to those who are not versed in the Power of Numbers)

is, that if two Bells more had been added to the aforesaid 12, they would have advanced the Number of Changes (and consequently the Time) beyond common Belief. For 14 Bells would require (at the same rate of ringing as before) about 10575 Years to ring all their different Changes but once over.

And if it were possible to ring 24 Bells in Changes (and at the fame rate of 10 Changes in a Minute, which is 2 Strokes in one Second) they would require more than 1170000000000000 Years to ring them but once over in all their different Changes; as may easily be computed from the precedent Table.

CHAP. VII.

Of Proportion Dissunct; commonly called the Golden Rule.

Proportion Disjunct or the Golden Rule, is either Direct or Reciprocal, called Inverse. And those are both Simple and Compound.

SECT, I.

Direct Proportion is, when of four Numbers, the first bearing the same Ratio or Proportion to the second; as the third doth to the fourth.

As in these 2:8::6:24.

Consequently, the greater the second Term is, in respect to the first; the greater will the sourth Term be, in respect to the third.

That is, as 8 the second Term is 4 Times greater than 2 the first Term: So is 24 the sourth Term, 4 Times greater than 6 the third Term.

Whence it follows, that if four Numbers are in Direct Proportion, the Product of the two Extremes will always be equal to the Product of the two Means, as well in Disjunct as in continued Proportion; according to Lemma 2. page 77.

For As 2: 2×4 :: 6: 6×4 . Or As 3: 3×5 :: 6: 6×5 . But $2 \times 6 \times 4 = 2 \times 4 \times 6$. Or $3 \times 6 \times 5 = 3 \times 5 \times 6$.

That is, the Product of the Extremes is equal to that of the Means.

Again,

Again, the less the second Term is, in respect to the first; the less will the fourth Term be in respect to the third.

As in these 18:6::12:4.

That is, 18:18 ÷ 3::12:12 ÷ 3.

But $18 \times 12 \div 3 = 18 \div 3 \times 12$. Viz. $18 \times 4 = 6 \times 12$.

Consequently 2.8.6.24. And 18.6.12.4. are true Proportionals, per Corol. 2. page 77.

From these Considerations, comes the Invention of finding a fourth Number in Proportion to any three given Numbers.

Whence it is called the Rule of Three.

For if the second Number multiplied into the third, be equal to the first multiplied into the fourth, it is easy to conceive, that if the Product of the second and third be divided by the first, the Quotient must needs be the fourth Number. For if that Number, which divides another, be multiplied into the Quotient produced by that Division; their Product will be equal to the Number divided. See page 21.

As in these 2:8:6:24. Here $8 \times 6 = 48 = 24 \times 2$. But if $24 \times 2 = 48$, then will $48 \div 2 = 24$. Or $48 \div 24 = 2$.

Note, Any four Numbers in direct Proportion may be varied feveral Ways. As in these.

Viz. If 2:8::6:24. Then 2:6::8:24. And 6:24::2:8. Or 24:6::8:2. &c.

These Variations being well understood, will be of no small Use in the stating of any Question in this Rule of Three.

When three Numbers are given, and it is required to find a fourth Proportional; the greatest Difficulty (if there be any) will be in the right stating the Question, or abstracting the Numbers out of the Words in the Question, and placing them down in their proper Order.

Now this will be very easy, if it be truly considered, that always two of the three given Terms, are only supposed, and assigned or limit the Ratio or Proportion. The third moves the

Question; and the fourth gives the Answer.

As for instance; if 3 Yards of Cloth cost 9 Shillings: What

will 6 Yards cost at the same Rate or Proportion?

Here 3 Yards, and 9 Shillings, are two supposed Numbers that imply the Rate; as appears by the Word [if] viz. If 3 Yards cost 9 Shillings (then comes the Question) What will 6 Yards cost?

N. B. The Term, which moves the Question, hath generally fome of those Words before it; viz. What will? How many? How long! How far! How much! &c.

Then (carefully observe this; viz.) The first Term in the Supposition must always be of the same kind and Denomination with that Term which moves the Question. And the Term fought will always be of the same kind and Denomination with the second Term in the Supposition.

Thus, $\begin{cases} yds & \text{fhil.} & yds & \text{fhil,} \\ 3:9::6:---$

All Questions in direct Proportion may be answered by three several Theorems.

Theorem 1.

Multiply the second and third Terms together, and divide their Product by the sirst Term; the Quotient will be the Answer required.

yds shil. yds shil.

3:9::6:18. The Answer.

Theorem 2. { Divide the second Term by the first, then multiply the Quotient into the third Term; and their Product will be the Answer required.

yds shil. yds shil.

3:9::6:18.

Thus 3) 9 (=3. Then $3 \times 6 = 18$, as before.

Theorem 3. EDivide the third Term by the first, then multiply the Quotient into the second Term, and their Product will be the Answer.

yds shil. yds shil.

3:9::6:18. 3) 6 (=2. And $9 \times 2 = 18$, as before.

Here you see that all the three Theorems are equally true; but the first is most general, and usually practised. Yet the two last may be readily performed, when either the second or third Term can be divided by the first; and will be found of singular Use in the Rules of Fellowship, &c. as will appear further on. Quest. Quest. 2. If 8 Pounds of Tobacco cost 74 Shillings; what will half a hundred Weight (viz. 56 Pounds) cost at the same Rate?

Thus 8 lb : 14 s. :: 56 lb : 41. 18 s. The Answer.

$$\begin{array}{c}
14 \\
224 \\
56 \\
8) 784 (= 98s. = 41.18s)
\end{array}$$

Or thus 8) 56 (= 7. Then $14 \times 7 = 98 \text{ s.}$ as before.

Quest. 3. If 14 Shillings will buy 8 Pounds of Tobacco; how much will 4 l. 18 s. buy after the same Rate?

Stated thus, 14:8lb::4l.18s. = 98s.: Then $98 \times 8 = 784$. And 14) 784 (56lb. The Answer.

Quest. 4. If half a hundred Weight of Tobacco be worth 41. 185. How much may I buy for 14 Shillings at that Rate?

Stated thus, 41. 18 s. = 98 s.: 56 lb:: 14 s.:—
Then $56 \times 14 = 784$. And 98) 784 (8 lb. The Answer.

Quest. 5. Suppose 4 l. 18 s. will buy 56 Pounds of Tobacco; what will 8 Pounds of the same Tobacco cost?

This Question is thus stated, 56lb: 41. 18s. = 98s. :: 8lb:— Then $98 \times 8 = 784$. And 56) 784 (= 14s. The Answer.

Note, The three last Questions are only the second varied, being proposed purely to give an Instance how any Question in this Rule of Three may be varied, according to page 86.

Quest. 6. What will three quarters of a Yard of Velvet cost, when the Price of 21 Yards and a half is worth 221. 10s. 6d. This Question truly stated will stand

Thus, $21\frac{1}{2}$ yds: 22l. 10 s. 6 d. :: $\frac{3}{4}$ to the Answer.

Which may be found three several Ways; viz. by Reduction; by Vulgar Fractions; and by Decimals.

1. By Reduction. Bring the first and third Terms into one Denomination; viz. into Quarters, and reduce the second Term into it's least Denomination, per Sect. 4. page 42.

Thus $21\frac{1}{2} = 86$ Quarters. And 22l. 10s. 6d. = 5406 Pence. Then 86:5406::3:15s. $8\frac{50}{86}d$. For $5406 \times 3 = 16218$.

And 86) 162 18 (= 188 $\frac{50}{86}$ d. Then $188 \frac{50}{86}$ Pence = 15 s. 8 d. $2\frac{14}{43}$ Farthings; the Answer required.

2. The same Question stated in Vulgar Fractions will stand thus; $21\frac{1}{2} = \frac{41}{2} : 22\frac{21}{40} = \frac{201}{100} : : \frac{3}{4} : (See Sect. 3. page 50.)$ Then $\frac{201}{40} \times \frac{3}{4} = \frac{2701}{100}$. And $\frac{41}{100} = \frac{2701}{100} = \frac{1406}{6880}$. page 55, 56.

These $\frac{5406}{6380}$ Parts of a Pound are brought into Shillings by multiplying the Numerator with 20, and dividing the Product by it's Denominator, &c.

Thus $5406 \times 20 = 108120$. And 6880) 108120 (15s. And there remains 4920. Again, $4920 \times 12 = 59040$. Then 6880) 59040 (8 d. and $\frac{50}{86}$, as before.

3. The same wrought by Decimal Fractions will be thus; $21\frac{1}{2} = 21.5$; 22l. 10 s. 6 d. = 22.525, and $\frac{2}{4} = 0.75$ Therefore 21.5: 22.525: 0.75: to the Answer. Then 22.525 × 0.75 = 16.89375 And 21.5) 16.89375 (0.7857 l. = 15 s. 8 d. 2 far. $\frac{272}{1000}$.

Quest. 7. If 2 C. 3 qrs. 21 lb. of Sugar cost 6 l. 1s. 8 d. What will 12 C. 2 qrs. cost at the same Rate?

That is, 2 C. 3 qrs. 21 lb: 61. 15. 8d.:: 12 C. 2 qrs. To what?

4	20	4
11 grs.	1215	50 grs.
2.8	12	28
88	250	1400 lb.
22	121	

Viz. 308+21=329 lb: 1460 d. :: 1400 lb: --

Then $1460 \times 1400 = 2044000$. And $329)2044000 (6212 \frac{3}{4} d. = 25 l. 17 s. <math>8\frac{3}{4} d$. the Answer required.

The same Question stated in Decimals will stand thus; 2,9375: 6,0833:: 12,5: To the Answer.

Then $6.0833 \times 12.5 = 76.04125$ which being divided by 2.9375 will give 25.8863, &c. the Answer in Decimals, which brought into Coin, will be 25 l. 17 s $8\frac{3}{4}$ d. as before.

Note, When the first Term is an Unit or 1; the Question is answered by Multiplication only.

Example. Suppose I give 5 Shillings 4 Pence for one Ounce of Silver, What must I pay for 32 ½ Ounces at the same Rate?

That is I Ounce: $5 ext{ s. 4 d.}$:: $32 frac{1}{2}$ Ounces: To, &c. Which is best stated thus I: $64 ext{ d.}$:: 32.5:

N

1 1

Then $32.5 \times 64 = 2080 d = 81.135.4 d$. the Answer required. For 1 neither multiplies nor divides.

When the second or third Term is an Unit or 1, then the Question is answered by Division only. As in this Example.

If a Silver Tankard weighing 21 Ounces, cost 51. 19:. What is that an Ounce?

Thus 21 oz.: 5 l. 19 s. = 119 s. :: 1: 5 s. 8 d. the Answer. That is 21) 119 (= 5 s. $\frac{14}{21}$ = 5 s. 8 d.

The Proof of all Questions in the Rule of Three Direct, may be easily conceived from what hath been already said; viz. That the Product of the first and sourth Terms, must always be equal to the Product of the second and third Terms.

Or otherwise, by varying the Question, as in the second,

third, fourth, and fifth Questions.

I shall conclude this Section with inserting a few Questions and their Answers; leaving their Work for the Learner's Practice.

Quest. 1. What will the Carriage of 17 C. 3 grs. 11 lb. come to, at the Rate of 7s. the Hundred?

Answer 6 l. 4s. 11 \(\frac{1}{4} \) d.

Quest. 2. If 61. 4s. 11 \(\frac{1}{4}\)d. be paid for the Carriage of 17 C. 3 qrs. 11 lb; What was paid for the Carriage of 1 lb?

Answer 3 Farthings.

Quest. 3. A Grocer bought 3 C. 1 qr. 14 lb. Weight of Gloves, at the Rate of 2 s. 4 d. per Pound, and fold them for 52 l. 14 s. Whether did he gain or lose by the Bargain, and how much?

Answer, he gained 8 l. 12 s.

Quest. 4. A Draper bought of a Merchant eight Packs of Coth; every Pack had four Parcels in it; and each Parcel contained ten Pieces; every Piece was Twenty-six Yards; he gave after the Rate of four Pounds sixteen Shillings for 6 Yards. What came the eight Packs to, and what were they worth per Yard?

Answ. They came to 6656 l. And were worth 16 s. per Yard.

Quest. 5. A Merchant bought 436 Yards of Broad Cloth for 8s. 6d. per Yard; and sold it again for 10s. 4d. per Yard. What did he gain by the 436 Yards?

Answ. he gained 39 l. 19 s. 4 d.

Quest. 6. A Goldsmith bought a Wedge of Gold, which weighed 14lb. 3 oz. 8 pw. for 514l. 4s. What did he pay per Ounce?

Answ. 3l. per Ounce.

Quest. 7. What will 48 oz. 17 pw. 20 Grains of Silver Plate come to, at the Rate of 5 s. 6 d. per Ounce?

Answ. 131. 1s. 10 3 d.

Quest. 8. If in four Weeks one spend 13s. 4d. How long will 53l. 6s. last at that Rate?

Answ. 6 Years, 47 Days, 2 Hours, 24.

Quest. 9. What will the one eighth Part of a Ship be worth, when the half is valued at 1015 l. 10s.

Answ. 253 l. 17 s. 6 d.

Quest. 10. The Sun is said to perform one entire Revolution, (or 360 Degrees) in the Space of 365 Days, 5 Hours, 48 Minutes, and 57 Seconds of Time, called a Tropical or Solar Year; How much doth it move in one Day?

Answ. 59.8.19 &c.

Quest. 11. If $\frac{5}{8}$ of a Yard of Velvet cost $\frac{2}{3}$ of a Pound Sterling, What will $\frac{1}{16}$ of a Yard cost of the same Velvet at that Rate?

Answ. $\frac{16}{2.40} = 1s.4d$.

Quest. 12. Suppose 21. and $\frac{3}{8}$ of $\frac{1}{3}$ of a Pound Sterling will buy 3 Yards and $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{5}$ of a Yard of Cloth, How much will $\frac{3}{4}$ of a Yard cost at that Rate?

Answ. $\frac{2295}{4896}$ of a Pound = 9 s. $4\frac{1}{2}d$.

Sect. 2. Of Recipzocal Proportion; usually called The Rule of Three Inverse.

REciprocal Proportion is, when of four Numbers the third (viz. that which moves the Question) beareth the same Ratio to the first: As the second does to the fourth.

Therefore, the less the third Term is, in respect to the first; the greater will the fourth Term be, in respect to the second.

EXAMPLE I.

If fixteen Men can do a Piece of Work in fix Days; How many Days must eight Men require to do the same Work, at the same Rate of working?

Here it is plain that eight Men must needs have more Time than 16 Men to do the same Work. Consequently the greater



the third Term is, in respect to the first, the lesser will the fourth

Term be, in respect to the second.

Example 2. If 8 Men can do a Piece of Work in 12 Days, How many Days will 16 Men require to do the same Work? Here it is plain the fourth Term must be less than the second, because 16 Men undoubtedly can do the same Work in less Time than 8 Men can.

From these Considerations, compared with those in page 85. it will be easy to perceive, whether the Terms of any proposed Question

are in Direct or Reciprocal Proportion.

For when, according to the true Meaning and Design of any Question in Proportion, More requires More, or Less requires Less, the Terms are in Direct Proportion; as in this last Section.

But if More require Less, or Less require More (as above) then

the Terms will be in Reciprocal Proportion.

The Manner of placing down the proposed Terms is the same in both Rules, viz. The first Term in the Supposition must be of the same Kind and Denomination with the third Term which moves the Question; and the Term sought must be of the same Kind and Denomination with the second Term in the Supposition. As in the two last Examples.

Thus, is { Example 1. | Men Days Men Days | 16: 6:: 8: - 8: 12:: 16: -

The Question being truly stated, observe this Theorem.

Theorem. Multiply the first and second Terms together, and di-Theorem. wide the Product by the third Term, the Quotient will be the Answer required.

Thus in the second Example $12 \times 8 = 96$.

Then 16) 96 (= 6 Days the Answer required.

That is, 16 Men may do the same Work in 6 Days, as 8

Men can do in 12 Days.

Now the Reason of this Operation (and consequently of the Theorem) is grounded upon this Consideration; viz. If 8 Men require 12 Days to do the Work, it is plain that one Man would require 8 Times 12 Days = 96 Days to do the same Work; but if one Man can do it in 96 Days, most certain 16 Men can do it in one 16th Part of that Time. Therefore 96 divided by 16 will give the Answer required, viz. 16) 96 (6 as before, &c.

Quest. 3. Suppose 800 Soldiers were besieged in a Town, and their Victuals were computed to serve them two Months (or 56 Days) How many of those Soldiers must depart the Gardson, that the same Victuals may serve the remaining Soldiers 5 Months.

The

The Question truly stated will stand

Thus, 2: 800: 5: Soldiers

5) 1600 (320: So many Soldiers may stay in the Garrison.

Consequently, 800 — 320 = 480 Soldiers that must go out of the Garrison, which is the Answer required.

Question 4. A borrowed of his Friend B 250 l. for fix Months, promising to do him the like Kindness upon Demand: Some Time after B desires A to lend him 400 l. the Question is, how long B must keep the 400 l. to be fully satisfied for his former Kindness to A.

Question 5. If a Penny White Loaf ought to weigh eight Ounces Troy Weight, when Wheat is fold for fix Shillings Six-Pence the Bushel; what mest it weigh when Wheat is fold for four Shillings the Bushel?

Thus 6 s. 6 d. =
$$78 d$$
.: 8 oz.: : $\frac{4}{4}$ s. = $48 d$.: to the Answer.

8

48) 624 (13 oz. the Answer required.

48

144

144

144

The Proof of this Inverse Rule is easily deduced from it's Operations; viz. The Product of the first and second Terms, must be equal to the Product of the third and sourth Terms.

Note, Any Question that falls under this Inverse Rule or Reciprocal Proportion, may be so stated as to have it's Terms in Direct Proportion; by only changing the Places of the first and third Terms in the Question. Thus,

Question

Question 6. If a Field will feed eighteen Horses for seven Weeks: How long will it feed Forty-two Horses at the same Rate of feeding?

First, 18 Horses: 7 Weeks:: 42 Horses: 3 Weeks. Here the Terms are stated inversely, as before.

Otherwise thus, 42 Horses: 7 Weeks:: 18 Horses: 3 Weeks. Then $18 \times 7 = 126$. And $126 \div 42 = 3$ Weeks. The Answer required.

Sect. 3. Of Compound Proportion; commonly called The Double Rule of Three.

Compound Proportion (as it is here meant) is, when there are five Numbers given to find out a fixth Proportional; and this is generally performed by a Double Position; that is, by stating and working the Question at two Operations, either in Direct or Reciprocal Proportion, according as the Question requires.

And therefore it is called, The Double Golden Rule, or Double

Rule of Three.

The Double Rule Direct is, when the fixth Term or Number fought, is found by two Operations, both of them in Direct Proportion.

Example 1. If a Hundred Pounds gain fix Pounds Interest in twelve Months; how much will three Hundred Pounds gain in nine Months, at the same Rate?

I suppose the Learner will easily conceive the Reason of these two Operations. For, first it is plain by Direct Proportion, that if 100 l. gain 6 l. in twelve Months, 300 l. will gain 18 l. in the same Time, and at the same Rate.

And by the same Rule it is plain, that if 12 Months will produce or give 18 l. Interest for 300 l. then 9 Months must needs give 13 ½ for the same Sum, viz. 300 l.

The Double Rule of Three Inverse is, when the fixth Term, or Number sought, is sound at two Operations (as before). But one of them requires an Answer in Reciprocal Proportion.

Question 2. If 6 Bushels of Oats will serve 4 Horse 8 Days, How many Days will 21 Bushels serve 16 Horses, at the same Rate of seeding?

This Question being parted into two Positions, the first will

be thus:

If 6 Bushels of Oats will serve 4 Horses 8 Days, How many

Days will 21 Bushels serve them?

Here it is plain, that 21 Bushels will serve them longer than 6 Bushels; therefore the first Position falls in Direct Proportion.

That is, if 6 Bushels will serve 4 Horses 8 Days, 21 Bushels will serve them 28 Days.

The next Position must be to find how long the said 21 Bushels will serve 16 Horses at the same Rate of seeding: it is plain, that 21 Bushels cannot, serve 16 Horses so many Days as they will serve 4 Horses; therefore this second Position salls in Reciprocal Proportion.

Thus, 4: 28: 16: 7 the Answer required.

After the like manner any Question in the Double Rule of Three may be answered by two single Positions, if Care be taken in stating them right, viz. Whether their Operation must be per-

formed by the fingle Rule Direct, or Inverse.

But all Questions in this Double Rule, where five Numbers are proposed to find a fixth, may more easily and readily be answered by one general Theorem; which comprises both the Direct and Inverse Rules; without considering either of them being deduced from the single Operations before-going.

But first you must carefully note, that in all Questions of this Nature, three of the five proposed Terms are always conditional

and supposed; and that the other two move the Question. As for Instance in Example 1.

Viz. If 100 l. will gain 6 l. in 12 Months; these three Terms are only supposed or conditional. Then come the Question; What will 300 l. gain in 9 Months? Now, in Order to raise the general Theorem, let us suppose, instead of Numbers, these Letters.

Viz. Let
$$\begin{cases} P = 100. & \text{The Principal.} \\ T = 12. & \text{The Time.} \\ G = 6. & \text{The Gain.} \end{cases}$$
 In the Supposition of any proposed Question.
$$\begin{cases} p = 300. & \text{The Principal.} \\ t = 9. & \text{The Time.} \\ g = 13.5. & \text{The Gain.} \end{cases}$$
 The three Terms wherein the Question lies.

The $P:G::p:\frac{Gp}{P}=$ { The Product of the two Means divided by the first Extreme.

That is,
$$100:6::300:\frac{300\times6}{100}=18$$
. { Which is the Guestion.

Then
$$T: \frac{Gp}{P}:: t:g$$

Viz. 12: 18:: 9: 13.5

Which is the fecond Part of the Question.

Ergo
$$Tg = \frac{Gpt}{P}$$
 { That is, the Product of the Extremes is equal to that of the Means.

Consequently, TgP = Gpt is the Theorem.

This Theorem affords two Rules, by which all Questions in this Double Rule of Three, or rather of five Numbers, may be resolved; due Regard being had to the true placing down of the

proposed Terms, which must be thus:

Always place the three conditional Terms in this Order; let that Number which is the principal Cause of Gain, Loss, or Action, &c. (viz. P.) be put in the first Place; that Number which denotes the Space of Time, or Distance of Place, &c. (viz. T.) be put in the second Place. And that Number which is the Gain, Loss, or Action, &c. (viz. G.) be put in the third Place. Now according to these Directions, the conditional Terms of the last Question will stand thus; P. T. G.

That done, place the other two Terms which move the Que-

stion, underneath those of the same Name,

of Property

Then if the Blank or Term fought, fall under the third Places as in this Question,

It will be $\left\{\begin{array}{c} G \not p \not t \\ \hline TP \end{array} = g. \right.$ Which gives this Rule.

Rule 1. { Multiply the three last Terms together for a Dividend, and the two first together for a Divisor; the Quotient arising from them will be the sixth Term.

That is, in our proposed Example 1.

Thus $6 \times 300 \times 9 = 16200$ the Dividend. And $100 \times 12 = 1200$ the Divifor.

Then 1200) 16200 (13½ the Answer, as before.

But if the Blank or Term fought fall under the first Place, then

It will be $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \frac{T_g P}{t G} = p_s \end{array}\right.$

Or if the Blank fall under the second Place,

It will be $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{T_g P}{G p} = t. \end{array} \right.$ Either of these give this Rule.

Rule 2. { Multiply the first, second, and last Terms together for a Divisor; the Quotient arising from them will be the sixth Term

And because our Example 2. falls under the Consideration both of Direct and Reciprocal Proportion, let it be here proposed again.

Viz. If 6 Bushels of Oats will serve 4 Horses 8 Days; how many Days will 21 Bushels serve 16 Horses, &c.

If the Terms of this Question be placed down as before directed, they will stand

Thus \{ \begin{array}{ll} 4 & 8 & 6 \\ 16 & 2i \end{array} \text{Terms in the Supposition:}

Here the Blank falls under the second Place, therefore it must be found by the second Rule.

Thus $4 \times 8 \times 21 = 672$ the Dividend. And $16 \times 6 = 96$ the Divifor.

Then 96) 672 (7 the Answer, as before.

Quest. 3. What Principal or Stock will gain 20 l. in 8 Months at 6 per Cent. per Annum?

Prin. Time. Gain.
100 . 12 . 6 Terms in the Supposition.
8 20

In this Question the Blank falls under the first Place, therefore it must be found by the second Rule.

Thus $100 \times 12 \times 20 = 24000$ the Dividend.

And $8 \times 6 = 48$ the Divifor.

Then 48) 24000 (500 l, the Answ. required.

The Proof of all Questions in this Double Rule of five Numbers, is best performed by varying the Question; viz. by stating it in another Order, as in the last Example: Thus,

If 100 l. gain 6 l. in 12 Months, what will 500 l. gain in 8 Months?

The Answer to this Question must be 201. if the Work of the last Example be true.

Stated thus $\begin{cases} Prin. & Time. & Gain. \\ 100 & 12 & 6 \\ 500 & 8 & \end{cases}$ then, per Rule 1,

500 \times 8 \times 6 = 24000. And 100 \times 12 = 1200. Then 1200) 24000 (20 l. the Answer, &c.

Quest. 4. If two Men can do 12 Rods of Ditching in 6 Days, How many Rods may be done by 8 Men in 24 Days, at the same Rate of working?

Answ. 192 Rods.

Quest. 5. If the Carriage of 5 C. 3 qrs. Weight, 150 Miles, cost 31. 7s. 4d. What must be paid for the Carriage of 7 C. 2 qrs. 25 lb. Weight, 64 Miles, at the same Rate?

Answ. 11. 18 s. 7 1 d.

Quest. 6. If 8 Men deserve 2 l. Wages for 5 Days Work, How much will 32 Men deserve for 24 Days, at the same Rate?

Answ. 381.8s.

Quest. 7. Suppose a Hundred Pounds would defray the Expences of five Men for Twenty-two Weeks and fix Days, How long would twelve Men be in spending of one Hundred and Fifty Pounds, at the same Rate?

Answ. 14 Weeks and 2 Days.

CHAP. VIII.

Of Trading in Company, usually called the Rule of Fellowship; also Bartering, and Exchanging of Coins, &c.

THE Rule of Fellowship is that by which the Accompts of several Partners trading in a Company, are so adjusted or made up, that every Partner may have his just Part of the Gain, or sustain his just Part of the Loss; according to the Proportion or Share of Money he hath in the Joint-Stock: Now this falls under two Considerations, called the Single and Double Rules of Fellowship.

Sect. 1. The Single Rule of Fellowship, viz. That without Time.

BY the Single Rule of Fellowship is adjusted the Accompts of those Partners that put all their several and perhaps different Sums of Money, into a common Stock at one and the same Time; and therefore it is usually called the Rule of Fellowship without Time: Now all Questions of this Nature are answered by so many several Operations in the Rule of Three Direct, as there are Partners in the Stock.

For, as the Total Sum of Money in the Stock is in Proportion to the whole Gain, or Loss: so is every Man's particular Part of that Stock; to his particular Share of that Gain, or Loss.

Quest. 1. Three Partners, suppose A, B, and C, make a Joint-

Stock of 961. in this manner.

A, puts in 24 l. B, puts in 32 l. and C, puts in 40 l. with this 96 l. they trade and gain 12 l. It is required to find each Man's true Part of that Gain.

The Operation will stand, thus

96 l.: 12 l.: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 24 \, l. : 3 \, l. = A \, 's \\ 32 \, l. : 4 \, l. = B \, 's \\ 40 \, l. : 5 \, l. = C \, 's \end{array} \right\}$ Part of the Gain.

Proof 3l. + 4l. + 5l. = 12l. the whole Gain.

That is, if the Sum of each Man's particular Gain, amount to the whole Gain, the Work is true; if not, some Error is committed which must be found out.

Note, These Operations will be very much abbreviated, if you work them by Theorem 2. page 87. For here 96 is a common Antecedent, and 12 is the common Consequent in all the three Proportions.

There-

Therefore 96: 12:: 1: 0,125 a common Multiplicator.

Then
$$\begin{cases} 24 \\ 32 \\ 40 \end{cases} \times 0,125 = \begin{cases} 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ l. \end{cases}$$
 for $\begin{cases} A, \\ B, \\ G, \end{cases}$ as before.

Now this Method is more readily performed than the other, especially when the Partners are many; because one Single Division serves for all the Work.

Quest. 2. Three Merchants, A, B, and C, freight a Ship with 248 Tons of Wine: Thus, A, loaded 98 Ton, B, 86 Ton, and C, 64 Ton. By Extremity of Weather the Seamen were forced to cast or throw 93 Ton of it over-board. How much of this Loss must each Merchant sustain?

First, 248:93:: 1:0,375 the common Multiplier.

Then
$$\begin{cases} 98 \\ 86 \\ 64 \end{cases} \times 0.375 = \begin{cases} 36.75 & \text{for } A's \\ 32.25 & \text{for } B's \\ 24.00 & \text{for } C's \end{cases}$$
 Lofs.

Proof $93.00 =$ the whole Lofs.

Now if the Question were to find how much of the remaining Wine that was saved, belongs to A, to B, and to C.

Then
$$\begin{cases} 98 - 36,75 = 61,25 \\ 86 - 32,25 = 53,75 \\ 64 - 24,00 = 40,00 \end{cases}$$
 belongs to
$$\begin{cases} A. \\ B. \\ C. \end{cases}$$

That is, A ought to have 61 Tons and 63 Gallons. B, ought to have 53 Tons and 189 Gallons. And C, ought to have 40 Tons of what was left.

Quest. 3, Suppose six Men, viz. A, B, C, D, E, and F, make 2 Joint-Stock of 2558 l.

Thus
$$\begin{cases}
A \\
B \\
C \\
D \\
E \\
F
\end{cases}$$
puts in
$$\begin{cases}
654 \cdot 10 = 654,50 \\
543 \cdot 15 = 543,75 \\
480 \cdot 00 = 480,00 \\
254 \cdot 10 = 254,50 \\
365 \cdot 05 = 365,25 \\
260 \cdot 00 = 260,00
\end{cases}$$

The whole Stock - 2558.00 = 2558,00 according to the Question.

With

With this Stock of 2558 l. they Trade eighteen Months, and Gain 831 l. 7s. It is required to find every Man's Part or Share of that Gain.

Note, Although the Time of Trading, viz. eighteen Months, be mentioned in the Question, yet it is no Way concerned in answering of it; as you may observe in the following Work.

First, 25581.: 831,351.:: 11.: 0,325 Decimal Parts. Consequently, 11.: 0,325:: 654,5: 212,7125. That is,

$$\begin{cases}
654,50 \\
543,75 \\
480,00 \\
254,50 \\
365,25 \\
260,00
\end{cases}
\times
\begin{cases}
0,325 = \begin{cases}
212,71250 \\
176,71875 \\
156,00000 \\
82,71250 \\
118,70625 \\
84,50000
\end{cases}$$
for
$$\begin{cases}
A. \\
B. \\
C. \\
D. \\
E. \\
F.
\end{cases}$$

That is, $\begin{cases} A. \\ B. \\ C. \\ D. \\ E. \\ F. \end{cases}$ gains $\begin{cases} l. & \text{Parts.} & l. & \text{s. d.} \\ 212,71250 = 212 \cdot 14 \cdot 03 \\ 176,71875 = 176 \cdot 14 \cdot 04^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ 156,00000 = 156 \cdot 00 \cdot 00 \\ 82,71250 = 82 \cdot 14 \cdot 03 \\ 118,70625 = 118 \cdot 14 \cdot 01^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ 84,50000 = 84 \cdot 10 \cdot 00 \end{cases}$ Proof. Sum $831,35 = 831 \cdot 07 \cdot 00$

I have omitted resolving this Question according to the usual Method (as before directed) of finding every Man's particular Part of the Gain by the Golden Rule, as in the first Work of Example 1. leaving that for the Learner's Practice.

Sect. 2. The Double Rule of Fellowship; or that with Time.

THIS is usually called the Double Rule of Fellowship, because every particular Man's Money is to be considered with Relation to the Time of it's Continuance in the Joint-Stock.

Question 1. A, and B, join in Partnership upon these Terms, viz. A, agrees to lay down 100 l. and to employ it in Trade 3 Months: Then B, is to lay down his 100 l. and with the whole Stock of 200 l. they are to trade 3 Months more. Now at the End of that Time, they find their whole Gain to be 21 l. It is required to know what each Man's Part of the Gain ought to be, according to his Stock, and the Time of employing it.

Here

Here it is but reasonable to conclude, that A, ought to gain more than B, notwithstanding their Stocks of Money are equal; because A employed his Money a longer Time than B.

Now for folving of this Question, let us suppose A's 100 l. employed the first 3 Months to gain Z = a Sum as yet unknown; then it must gain 2 Z in 6 Months; and to find what B, must gain, it will be,

Months.

100 . 6 . 2
$$Z = A$$
's Gain $\left. \right.$ per Rule 1. Page 97.

100 . 3 . to B's Gain $\left. \right.$ per Rule 1. Page 97.

Ergo $\frac{100 \times 3 \times 2Z}{100 \times 6} = B$'s Gain.

But A's Gain added to B's Gain must = 211, the whole Gain by the Question.

Therefore
$$2Z + \frac{100 \times 3 \times 2Z}{100 \times 6} = 21 l$$
.

That is, $100 \times 6 \times 2Z + 100 \times 3 \times 2Z = 21 \times 100 \times 6$. Which contracted is, $900 \times 2Z = 21 \times 600$.

Consequently, $2Z = \frac{21 \times 600}{900}$, which gives the following Analogy.

Viz. 900: 21:: 600: 2Z = 14l. for A's Gain. And 900: 21:: 100 × 3 = 300: 7l. for B's Gain.

Now this way of arguing hath not only resolved the present Question, but it also affords (and demonstrates) a general Rule for resolving all Questions of this Nature, be the Partners never so many.

Rule.

Multiply every particular Man's Stock, with the Time it is employed, then it will be, as the Sum of all those Products; is to the whole Gain (or Loss). So is every one of those Products: to it's proportional Part of that whole Gain (or Loss).

Question 2. Three Merchants A, B, and C, enter into Partner-ship, thus; A puts into the Stock 65 l. for 8 Months; B puts in 78 l. for 12 Months; and C puts in 84 l. for 6 Months. With these they traffick, and gain 166 l. 12 s. It is required to find each Man's Share of the Gain, proportionable to the Stock and Time of employing it.

I. A's

1. A's
2. B's
3. C's Stock
$$\begin{cases} 65 \ l. \times 8 \\ 78 \ l. \times 12 \\ 84 \ l. \times 6 \end{cases}$$
 Months, the Time it was $\begin{cases} 520 \\ 936 \\ 504 \end{cases}$

The Sum of those Products is, 1960

Then, according to the Rule, the feveral Proportions will stand thus,

1960: 166,6::
$$\begin{cases} 520: 44,20 = 44l. & 4s. & 0d. \\ 936: 79,56 = 79l. & 11s. & 2\frac{1}{2}d. \\ 504: 42,84 = 42l. & 16s. & 9\frac{1}{2}d. \end{cases}$$
 for
$$\begin{cases} A. \\ B. \\ C. \end{cases}$$
 The whole Gain = 160l. 12s. $0d.$

Or you may work as in some of the former Examples, viz. by finding the proportional Part of the Gain due to one Pound, &c

Thus 1960: 166,6:: 1: 0,085 the common Multiplier.

Then
$$\begin{cases} 520 \\ 936 \\ 504 \end{cases} \times 0.085 = \begin{cases} 44.2 \\ 79.56 \\ 42.84 \end{cases}$$
 for $\begin{cases} A. \\ B. \\ C. \end{cases}$ &c. As before.

Question 3. Six Merchants, viz. A, B, C, D, E, and F, enter into Partnership, and compose a Joint-Stock in this manner;

$$Viz. \begin{cases} A \\ B \\ C \\ D \\ E \\ F \end{cases} \text{ puts in } \begin{cases} 64 \cdot 10 \\ 78 \cdot 15 \\ 100 \cdot 00 \\ 80 \cdot 10 \\ 74 \cdot 12 \\ 125 \cdot 15 \end{cases} \text{ for } \begin{cases} 4^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ 6 \\ 8^{\frac{1}{4}} \\ 12 \\ 9^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ 7 \end{cases} \text{ Months.}$$

They traffick, and gain 258 l. 18 s. $4\frac{1}{3}d$. It is required to find every Man's Share of the Gain, according to the Stock and Time it was employed.

The feveral Stocks of Money, and their respective Times being first brought into Decimals, and then multiplied together, will produce these following Products.

Then

Then if you work by the common Way; it will be 4142.7:258.91875::290.25:18.140625=181.25.93d. for A's part of the Gain; and so on for the rest.

But if you work by the easiest Way, viz. by finding the pro-

portional Part of the Gain due to one Pound.

These sew Examples being well understood, are sufficient to shew the whole Business of Fellowship, &c.

Sect. 3. Of Bartering.

WHEN Merchants, or Tradefmen, exchange one Commodity for another, it is called *Bartering*; and the only Difficulty in this way of dealing, lies in duly proportioning the Commodities to be exchanged, fo as that neither Party may sustain Loss.

Question 1. Two Merchants, A, and B, Barter; A would exchange 5 C. 3 qrs. 14 pound of Pepper, which is worth 3 l. 10s. per C. with B for Cotton, worth 10 d. per pound weight; how

much Cotton must B give to A for his Pepper?

Note, In order to the resolving of this Question (and all other Questions of this Nature) you must first find, by the Rule of Three (or otherwise) the true Value of that Commodity whose Quantity is given (which in this Question is Pepper). And then find how much of the other Commodity will amount to that Sum, at the Rate proposed.

First 5 C. 3 qrs. 14 lb. = 5,875 in Decimals. And 3 l. 10 s. 0 d. = 3,500

Then 1: 3,5:: 5,875: 20,5625 = 20 l. 11s. 3 d. the true

Value of the Pepper.

Next, it is easy to conceive, that A ought to have as much Cotton at 10 d. per Pound, as will amount to 20 l. 11 s. 3 d. which may be thus found;

10 d.: 1lb.:: 20 l. 11 s. 3 d. = 4235 d.: 493,5 lb.

That is, 4C. 1qr, $17\frac{1}{2}$ pound of Cotton. And so much B must give to A in exchange for his 5 C. 3 qrs. 14 pound of Pepper.

Question 2. Two Merchants A and B barter thus; A hath 86 Yards of Broad Cloth worth 9s. 2d. per Yard ready Money: but in Barter he will have IIs. per Yard. B hath Shalloon worth 2 s. 1 d. per Yard ready Money; it is required to find how many Yards of the Shalloon B must give to A for his Cloth, to make his Gain in the Barter equal to that of A's.

The Method of resolving this, and the like Questions, differs a little from the last Case; for in this you must first find what Advance B ought to make per Yard upon his Shalloon, in pro-

portion to what A hath done upon a Yard of his Cloth.

Thus $\begin{cases} s. d. d. s. d. s. d. d. s. d. d. \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} g. 2 = 110: 11 = 132:: 2.1 = 25: 2.6 = 30 \end{cases}$ the advanced Price for a Yard of B's Shalloon. Then proceed as before in the last Example.

Thus I Yard: 11s.:: 86 Yards: 946 s. = 47 l. 6s. the ad-

vanced Value of all the Cloth.

Next, If 2 s. 6 d. will buy one Yard of Shalloon, at it's advanced Price, how many Yards will 47 l. 6 s. buy.

Thus 2,5:1:: 946: 378,4 Yards.
That is, B must give $378\frac{2}{3}$ Yards of his Shalloon to A, for his 86 Yards of Broad Cloth.

These two Examples are sufficient to shew the Learner, that the Method of bartering, or exchanging Commodities for Commodities, wholly depends upon a clear understanding of the Golden Rule; which indeed is so called, because of it's Univerfal Use.

Sect. 4. Of Exchanging Coins.

EXchanging the Coins of one Country for those of another, is like the Business of bartering Commodities. That is, it confifts in finding what Sum of one Country Coin will be equal in Value to any proposed Sum of another Country Coin. And, in order to perform that, it will be very necessary to have a true Account at all times of the just Value of those Foreign Coins which are to be exchanged, as they are compared in Value with our English Coin,

I fay, at all times, because the Par of Exchange (as the Merchants call it) differs almost every Day from London to other Countries. That is, it rifes and falls, according as Money is plenty or scarce; or according to the Time allowed for Payment of the Money in Exchange, &c. Those Those that desire to be fully satisfied in the common Values of Foreign Coins, Weights, Measures, &c. may find them in a Book called the Merchants Map of Commerce, which for Brevity sake I have omitted transcribing, and only collected these sew of Coins.

Foucian Coine English Coin.				
Foreign Coins.	l. s. d.			
French Coin. A Denier =	-			
12 Deniers = 1 Soulz=	0.0.040			
12 Soulz = 1 Livre =	0.0.0 10			
3 Livres = 1 Crown=	0.4.6			
Low-Country Coin. A Stiver =	$0.0.1\frac{1}{5}$			
6 Stivers = 1 Flemish Shilling =	$0.0.7\frac{1}{5}$			
20 Stivers = I Gilder =	0.2.0			
10 Gilders = 33 \frac{1}{3} Shillings \}	0.2.0			
or a Flemish Pound \ =	1.0.0			
_Embden Dollar=	$0.2.3\frac{3}{5}$			
Campen Dollar=	0.2.75			
	0.3.0			
A Zealand Dollar = Lyons Dollar =	0.4.0			
Specie Dollar=	0.5.0			
Duccatoon=	$0.6.3\frac{3}{5}$			
A Rixdollar of the Empire	0.4.53			
Germany. A Gilder of Nuremberg =	0.7.1			
The Livre at Leghorn=	0.0.9			
Florence Crown Current =	0.5.3			
Venice Ducat de Banco=	0.4.4			
The Current Ducat=	0.3.4			
In Italy The Naples Ducat =	0.5.0			
and The Cadiz Ducat=	0.5.61			
Spain. The Barcelona Ducat =	0.6.0			
The Valencia Ducat=				
The Bergonia Ducat =	0.4.4			
The Portugal Testoon =	O. I. 3			
The Piece of Eight =	0.4.6			

Note, The English generally reckon their Exchange with other Countries by Pence, viz. other Countries value their Crowns, Dollars, or Ducats, &c. by English Pence. Except with some Parts of the Low-Countries, with whom the Exchange is in Pounds Sterling.

Quest. 1. How many Dollars at 4s. 6d. per Dollar, may one have for 1621. 18s.

Answer 724 Dollars.

Thus

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Thus 1621. 18s. = 3258s. and 4s. 6. = 54d. Then 54:1::3258:724 the Answer.

Quest. 2. How many Saragossa Ducats, of 5 s. 6 d. the Ducat, may be had for 275 Bergonia Ducats, at 4 s. 4 d. the Piece?

Answer 216 and 3 s. 8 d. over.

Thus 5 s. 6 d. = 66 d. and 4 s. 4 d. = 52 d. Then 275 \times 52 = 14300 d. = 275 Ducats. Consequently 66) 14300 (216 $\frac{2}{3}$ the Answer required.

Quest. 3. A Traveller would change 233 l. 16 s. 8 d. Sterling Money; for Venice Ducats at 4 s. 9 ½ d. per Ducat; How many Ducats must be have?

Answer 976 Ducats.

Thus 4s. $9\frac{1}{2}d. = 57.5d.$ and 233l. 16s. 8d. = 56120d.Then 57.5 d.) 56120 d. (976 the Answer required.

Quest. 4. A Cashier hath received 759 Ducats, at 7 s. 6 d. per Ducat; And 579 Dollars at 4 s. 8 d. per Dollar: Which he would exchange for Flemish Marks at 14 s. 3 d. per Piece: How many ought he to have?

Answer 589 Marks, and 15 d. over.

For 7s. 6d. = 90d. and 4s. 8d. = 56d.

Then $\begin{cases} 759 \times 90 = 68310 \, d. \text{ the Value of the Ducats.} \\ 579 \times 56 = 32424 \, d. \text{ the Value of the Dollars,} \\ \text{their Sum} = 100734 \, d. \end{cases}$

And 14 s. 3 d. = 171 d. the Flemish Mark in Pence.

Consequently 171) 100734 (589 &c. the Answer required.

Quest. 5. A Bill of Exchange was accepted at London for the Payment of 400 l. Sterling, for the like Value delivered in Amferdam, at 1 l. 13 s. 6 d. for 1 l. Sterling; How much money was delivered at Amsterdam?

Answer. 670 l. Flemish,

For 11. = 240 d. and 11. 13s. 6d. = 402 d. Then 240: 402:: 400: 670 the Answer required.

Quest. 6. When the Exchange from Antwerp to London is at 1 l. 4 s. 7 d. Flemish, for 1 l. Sterling; How many Pounds Sterling must be paid at London; to ballance 236 l. Flemish at Antwerp.

Answer 192 l. Sterling.

Thus 11. 4 s. 7 d. = 295 d. and 11. = 240 d. Then 295 : 240 :: 236 : 192 the Answer.

Quest.

Quest. 7. A Merchant delivered at London 120 l. Sterling to receive 147 l. Flemish at Amsterdam; How much was 1 l. Sterling valued at, in Flemish Money?

Answer. 11. 4s. 6d.

Thus 120: 147:: 240 d.: 294 d. = 11. 4s. 6d. &c.

Quest. 8. A Factor hath fold Goods at Cadiz for 1468 Pieces of Eight, valued at 45. $6\frac{1}{2}d$. Sterling per Piece; How much Sterling Money do those Pieces of Eight amount to?

Answer 333 l. 75. 2 d.

Thus, if I = 54.5 d. then $1468 \times 54.5 = 83006 d$. Sc.

Quest. 9. A Traveller would have an equal Number of Crowns at 5s. 6d. per Crown; and Dollars at 4s. 5d. per Piece; How many of each fort may he have for 309 l. 8s.?

Answer 624 of each.

Thus 309 l. 8s. = 74256 d.

And 5 s. 6 d. + 4 s. 5 d. = 119 d.

Then 119) 74256 (624 the Answer required.

Quest. 10. Suppose I would exchange 5271. 17s. 6d. for Dollars at 4s. 6d. a Piece, Ducats at 5s. 8d. a Piece, and Crowns at 6s. 1d. a Piece; and would have 2 Dollars for 1 Ducat, and 3 Dollars for 2 Crowns. How many of each fort must I have?

Answer 927 Dollars, 463 1 Ducats, and 618 Crowns.

For
$$\begin{cases} 54 d. = 1 \text{ Dollar.} \\ 68 d. = 1 \text{ Ducat.} \\ 73 d. = 1 \text{ Crown.} \end{cases}$$
 per Question.
And 126690 $d. = 527 l.$ 175. 6 $d.$

Now if the Crowns, Dollars, and Ducats, were to be equal in Number; then 73 + 54 + 68 must have been the Divisor, by which 126690 must have been divided, and the Quotient would have been the Answer to the Question. As in the last Example.

But here instead of their Sum, such Parts of them must be taken as are assigned or limited by the Question; that so the Number of some one of them may be found.

And because there must be { 2 Dollars for 1 Ducat, and 3 Dollars for 2 Crowns,

Therefore it will be $\frac{1}{2}$ of a Ducat for one Dollar, and $\frac{2}{3}$ of a Crown for one Dollar.

Consequently,

Consequently, $54 + \frac{68}{2} : + \frac{2}{3}$ of $73 = 136\frac{2}{3}$, or $\frac{410}{3}$ will be the Divisor to find the Number of Dollars.

Thus $4\frac{1}{3}^{\circ}$) 126690 (927 the Number of Dollars. Then $\frac{1}{2}$ of 927 = $463\frac{1}{2}$ is the Number of Ducats. And $\frac{2}{3}$ of 927 = 618 is the Number of Crowns.

Or if you please you may form Divisors to find either the Ducats or Crowns first: For if it be 2 Dollars for 1 Ducat, and 3 Dollars for 2 Crowns, as before;

Then will 6 Dollars be for 3 Ducats, and 6 Dollars for 4 Crowns.

Therefore, $\begin{cases} \frac{2}{3} \text{ of a Dollar } \\ \frac{3}{4} \text{ of a Ducat } \end{cases}$ will be for I Crown.

Consequently, $\frac{2}{3}$ of $54:+\frac{3}{4}$ of 68:+73=205 will be the Divisor to find the Crowns first, &c.

Quest. 11. A Cashier is to receive 500 l. He is offered Crowns at 6 s. $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per Crown, which are worth but 6 s. Or he may have Dollars at 4 s. 5 d. the Piece, which are worth but 4 s. 4 d. Which of these shall he receive to have the least Loss? And how much will he lose in the Payment?

I { Crown = 72 d. } according to their true Values.

2 { I Crown = 73.5 d. } the advanced Values.
I Dollar = 53.0 d. }

Now to find which will be the least Loss; find what the advanced Value of a Dollar ought to be in Proportion to that of I Crown.

Thus 72: 73,5:: 52: 53,083 &c. But he may have Dollars at 53 d. per Piece, therefore the Payment in Dollars will be the

least Loss; viz. 53 is less than 53,083 &c.

Next, to find what the whole Loss will be by receiving Dollars. Because the 500l. = 120000d. is advanced as much above the true Value, as 53d. is above 52d. Therefore say, If 53d. advance 1d = 53d - 52d.; what will 120000d. advance? i.e.

53 d.: 1 d.:: 120000 d.: 2264 $\frac{8}{53}$ d. = 9 l. 8 s. 4 $\frac{8}{53}$ d. = the Lois.

Quest. 12. Suppose I exchange 41. 10 s. 10 d. for 11 Crowns and 7 Dollars; and at another Time I have 4 Crowns and 3 Dollars for 11. 15 s. each being of the same Value with the first. What is the Value of a Crown, and of a Dollar?

First

First 11 Crowns + 7 Dollars = 1090 d. } by the Question. Second 2 Crowns + 3 Dollars = 420 d. }

Then in order to find the Value of 1 Crown, you must cast off the Dollars by making them of the same Number; Thus,

33 Crowns + 21 Dollars = 3270 d. the first multipl. with 3.
28 Crowns + 21 Dollars = 2940 d. the second multipl. with 7.

Then 5 Crowns = 330 d. being the Difference.

Consequently 5) 330 (66 d. = 5s. 6 d. is the Value of 1 Crown. And 4 Crowns = 264 d.

Then will 3 Dollars = 420 d. — 264 d. = 156 d. Confequently 3) 156 (52 d. = 4s. 4d. the Value of 1 Dollar.

CHAP. IX.

Of Alligation.

WHEN it is required to mix feveral Sorts of Ingredients together; as different forts of Corn, Wines, Wool, Spices, or Metals; or to compose Medicines, &c. the Method of proportioning such Mixtures, is called the Rule of Alligation; and is divided into two Parts or Branches; called Medial and Alternate.

Sect. 1. Of Alligation Medial.

ALligation Medial, is that by which the Mean Rate or Price of any Mixture is found, when the particular Quantities of the Mixtures and Rates are given; and is thus performed.

First find the Sum of all the Quantities proposed to be mixed?

And also the Sum of all their particular Rates.

Then the Proportion will be,

Rule Sum of all the Quantities: Is to the Sum of all their Rates: So is any Part of the Mixture: To the Mean Rate or Price of that Part.

Quest. 1. Suppose 15 Bushels of Wheat at 5 s. the Bushel, and 12 Bushels of Rye at 3 s. 6 d. the Bushel, were mixed together; What

What is the Mean Rate or Price, it may be fold for a Bushel, without Loss or Gain?

This Question prepared as directed above, will stand

Thus \{ \begin{aligned}
& \text{15 Bushels of Wheat at 5 s. per Bushel, comes to 900 d.} \\
& \text{12 Bushels of Rye at 3 s. 6 d. each, comes to 504 d.} \\
& \text{27 = their Sum.} \quad \text{And their total Value = 1404 d.} \end{aligned}

Then 27 Bushels: 1404 d. :: 1 Bushel: 52d. = 4s. 4d. the Answer required.

Quest. 2. A Grocer mixeth 36 Pounds of Tobacco, worth 1s. 6 d. a Pound, with 12 Pounds of another fort at 2s. a Pound, and 12 Pounds of a third fort at 1s. 10 d. the Pound. How may he fell the Mixture per Pound?

1b. s. d.

A.

First
$$\begin{cases} 36 \cdot \text{at I} \cdot 6 \\ 12 \cdot \text{at 2} \cdot 0 \\ 12 \cdot \text{at I} \cdot 10 \end{cases}$$
 per Pound amounts to $\begin{cases} 648 \\ 288 \\ 264 \end{cases}$
 $60 = \text{the Number of Pounds. Their Value} = 1200$

Then 60 lb: 1200 d.:: 1 lb: 20 d. = 1s. 8 d. the Answer required.

Quest. 3. A Vintner mixeth 31 Gallons and a half of Malaga Sack worth 7 s. 6 d. the Gallon; with 18 Gallons of Canary at 6 s. 9 d. the Gallon; 13 Gallons and a half of Sherry at 5 s. the Gallon; and 27 Gallons of White Wine at 4 s. 3 d. the Gallon. It is required to find what one Gallon of this Mixture is worth.

First
$$\begin{cases} 31\frac{1}{2} & \text{at } 7 & .6 \\ 18 & \text{at } 6 & .9 \\ 13\frac{1}{2} & \text{at } 5 & .0 \end{cases}$$
 per Gallon comes to $\begin{cases} 2835 \\ 1458 \\ 810 \\ 1377 \end{cases}$

$$90 = \text{the Number of Gall. Their Value} = 6480$$

Then 90: 6480:: 1:72 d. = 6s. the Rate or Price of one Gallon, as was required.

The Proof of all Operations in these fort of Mixtures, is done by comparing the Value of all the Mixture (being fold at the Mean Rate) with the total Value of all the particular Quantities, supposing they had been fold at their respective Rates unmixed; if those Sums are equal, the Work is true.

Sect. 2. Of Allegation Alternates

Alligation Alternate, is that by which the particular Quantities of every Ingredient concerned in any Mixture are found; when the particular Rates of every one of those Ingredients, and the mean Rate are given; being (as it were) the Converse to Alligation Medial; as will appear by the following Operations, which admit of three Cases.

Case I. The Particular Rates of any Ingredients proposed to be mixed, and the Mean Rate of the whole Mixture being given. To find how much of each Ingredient is requisite to compose the Mixture; when the whole Quantity, or any Part thereof, is not limited.

Quest. 1. How much Wheat at 5s. the Bushel, and Rye at 3s. 6d. the Bushel, will compose a Mixture that may be sold for 4s. 4d. the Bushel?

Note, In all Questions of this Nature, it will be convenient to place the Mean Rate so, as that it may be easily compared with the Particular Rates, in order to find every one of their Differences from the Mean Rate, by Inspection only.

Thus, the Mean Rate = 52 d. { Wheat 60 d. Rye 42 d.

Then take the several Differences between the Mean Rate, and the Particular Rates; setting down those Differences alternately, and they will be the Quantities required.

Thus $52 \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 60 \\ 42 \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 10 = 52 - 42 \\ 8 = 60 - 52 \end{array} \right.$

That is 52 - 42 = 10 for the Quantity of Wheat.

And 60 - 52 = 8 for the Quantity of Rye, that will compose the Mixture required.

The Proof by Alligation Medial.

Add { 10 Bushels of Wheat at 60 d. per Bushel = 600 d. 8 Bushels of Rye at 42 d. per Bushel = 336 d. = 936 d.

Then 18:936::1:52 d. = 4s. 4d. the Mean Rate.

Note, Although 10 and 8 do answer the Question, as plainly appears by the Proof, yet they are not the only two Numbers; for this Question, and all others of this kind, will admit of various Answers, and all whole Numbers; for any two Numbers that are in the same Proportion to one another, as 10 is to 8, will as truly answer the Question.

Viz.

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Quest. 2. A Grocer would mix three forts of Tobacco together, viz. One Sort of 18 d. per lb. another Sort of 22 d. per lb. and a third Sort of 2 s. the lb. How much of each Sort must he take, that the whole Mixture may be fold for 20 d. the Pound?

Having set down the given Rates, as before, then find each of their Differences from the proposed Mean Rate, and place those Differences alternately. Thus,

Mean Rate 20
$$\begin{cases} 18 \\ 22 \\ 24 \end{cases} \begin{cases} 4+2=24-20 \text{ and } 22-20 \\ 2=20-18 \\ 2=20-18 \end{cases}$$

These Differences, viz. 6.2.2 are the Quantities required.

Proof.
$$\begin{cases} 6 \text{ lb. of Tobacco at } 18 \text{ d.} \\ 2 \text{ lb.} & ----- \text{ at } 22 \text{ d.} \\ 2 \text{ lb.} & ------ \text{ at } 24 \text{ d.} \end{cases}$$
 the Pound come to $\begin{cases} 44 \text{ d.} \\ 48 \text{ d.} \end{cases}$

$$10 = \text{the Number of Pounds.} \quad \text{Their Value} = 200 \text{ d.}$$
Then 10) 200 (20 the Mean Rate.

Or indeed any three Numbers that have the same Ratio to one another as 6 and 2 have, will answer the Question.

That is,
$$6:2:: \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 9:3. \\ 12:4 \\ 15:5 \end{array} \right\}$$
 &c.

But if only one of the three given Rates had been greater than the Mean Rate; as suppose 14 d. per Pound, 18 d. per Pound, and 24 d. per Pound, and the Mean Rate 20 d. as before. Then their Differences must have been placed,

Thus, 20
$$\left\{\begin{array}{c} 14 \\ 18 \\ 24 \end{array}\right\} \left\{\begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 6 + 2 \end{array}\right\}$$
 &c. as before.

Quest. 3. A Vintner would make a Mixture of Malaga, worth 7s. 6d. per Gallon, with Canary at 6s. 9d. per Gallon, Sherry at 5s. per Gallon, and White Wine at 4s. 3d. per Gallon; What Quantity of each Sort must be take, that the Mixture may be sold for 6s. per Gallon?

In all Questions of this Kind, wherein it is required to mix four Things together, two of them having their Prices greater, and two lesser than the mean Rate: you must always alligate or

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compare a greater and lesser Price with the mean Price, setting down their Differences alternately, as in the first Example of this Section.

Thus, Mean Rate =
$$72d$$
.

$$\begin{cases}
Malaga 90d. \\
White 51d.
\end{cases}
\begin{cases}
21 = 72 - 51 \\
18 = 90 - 72 \\
Sherry 60d.
\end{cases}
\begin{cases}
9 = 81 - 72 \\
12 = 72 - 60
\end{cases}$$

Hence 21 Gallons of Malaga, 12 of Canary, 9 of Sherry, and 18 of White will compose the Mixture required.

Either of these Mixtures equally answer the Question, which may be easily tried as before in the last, &c.

Case II. The particular Rates of all the Ingredients proposed to be mixed, the Mean Rate of the whole Mixture, and any one of the Quantities to be mixed being given: Thence to find how much of every one of the other Ingredients is requisite to compose the Mixture.

Note, This is usually called Alligation Partial.

Quest. 4. How much Wheat at 5 s. the Bushel, must be mixed with 12 Bushels of Rye at 3 s. 6 d. a Bushel; that the whole Mixture may be sold for 4 s. 4 d. the Bushel?

In this Case you must set down all the particular Rates, with the Mean Rate, and find their Differences just as before; without any regard had to the Quantity given.

Then

As the Quantity found by the Differences of the Same Name with the Quantity given: Is to the Quantity given:: So is any of the other Quantities found by the Differences: To the Quantity of it's Name.'

Thus 8: \$2:: 10:15, the Quantity or Number of Bushels of Wheat required.

Quest. 5. How much Malaga at 7s. 6d. the Gallon, Sherry at 5s. the Gallon, and White Wine at 4s. 3d. the Gallon, must be mixed with 18 Gallons of Canary at 6s. 9d. the Gallon; that the whole Mixture may be sold for 6s. the Gallon?

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0: 63

The Terms being set down, &c. as before, will stand

Thus, Mean Rate 72 d.

Malaga 90 d.
White 51 d.
Sherry 60 d.
Canary 81 d.

12

Then, as 12:18::

21:31 Gallons of Malaga.

18:27 Gallons of White.

9:13 Gallons of Sherry.

That is, 31 1 Gallons of Malaga, 27 of WhiteWine, and 13 1 of Sherry, being mixed with 18 Gallons of Canary, will make

the Mixture required.

Or thus, 72

Malaga 90
Sherry 60
12
18
Canary 81
White 51
9

Gallons. Proof. $\begin{cases} 10\frac{6}{21} & \text{at } 90 \text{ d.} \\ 15\frac{9}{21} & \text{at } 90 \text{ d.} \\ 7\frac{15}{21} & \text{at } 51 \text{ d.} \\ 18 & \text{at } 81 \text{ d.} \end{cases}$ each $\begin{cases} 925\frac{15}{21} \\ 925\frac{1}{21} \\ 393\frac{9}{21} \\ 1458 \end{cases}$ Sum 51 21 Value = $3702\frac{18}{21}$

Then $51\frac{9}{21}$) 3702 $\frac{18}{21}$ (72 d. = 6 s. the Mean Rate.

Therefore the Quantities are as truly affigned here, as in the last Work.

Case III. The particular Rates of all the Ingredients proposed to be mixed; and the Sum of all their Quantities with the Mean Rate of that Sum being given; to find the particular Quantities of the Mixture.

This is called Alligation Total, and is thus performed.

Set down all the particular Rates, with the Mean Rate, and find their Differences, as before: add together all the Differences. into one Sum;

As the Sum of all the Differences: Is to the Sum of all Then \{ the Quantities given :: So is every particular Difference : LTo it's particular Quantity.

Quest. 6. Let it be required to mix Wheat at 5 s. the Bushel, with Rye at 3s. 6d. the Bushel; so that the whole Quantity may be 27 Bushels, to be fold for 4s. 4d. a Bushel; what Quantity of each must be taken to make up the Mixture?

Mean

Mean Rate 52 { Wheat 60 d. Rye 42 d. } {
$$\frac{10}{8}$$
 = their Sum.

Then 18: 27:: { $\frac{10}{8}$: $\frac{15}{8}$ } the Quantities required.

Question 7. Suppose it were required to mix Malaga at 7s. 6d. the Gallon, with Canary at 6s. 9d. the Gallon; Sherry at 5s. the Gallon, and White Wine at 4s. 3d. the Gallon; so that the whole Mixture may be 90 Gallons; to be sold for 6s. the Gallon: How much of each fort will compose that Mixture?

Mean Rate =
$$72 d$$
.
$$\begin{cases} Malaga & 90 \\ White & 51 \\ Sherry & 60 \end{cases} \begin{cases} 21 \\ 18 \\ 9 \\ 12 \end{cases}$$

$$\hline 60 = \text{their Sum.}$$
Then $60:90::\begin{cases} 21:31\frac{1}{2} \\ 18:27 \\ 9:13\frac{1}{2} \\ 12:18 \end{cases}$ the Gallons of
$$\begin{cases} Malaga \\ White Wine. \\ Sherry. \\ Canary. \end{cases}$$
Or thus, $72 \begin{cases} Malaga & 90 \\ Sherry & 60 \\ Canary & 81 \\ White & 51 \end{cases} \begin{cases} 12 \\ 18 \\ 9 \\ \hline 60 = \text{their Sum.} \end{cases}$
Then $60:90::\begin{cases} 12:18 \\ 28:27 \\ 21:31\frac{1}{2} \\ 9:13\frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$ Gallons of
$$\begin{cases} Malaga. \\ Sherry. \\ Canary. \\ White Wine. \end{cases}$$

Either of these Ways do equally answer the Question, as may be easily tried by Alligation Medial. As before, &c.

Note, The Work of these Proportions may be much shortened (especially when there are many Ingredients to be mixed) if you observe the same Method as was proposed in the Rule of Fellowship, page 99, &c.

I have made Use of the very same Examples both in Alligation Medial, and Alternate, throughout the three Cases; being, as I presume, much better than if they had been different ones; because the Learner may (if he considers them a little) easily perceive, not only the Difference between the two Rules, but also wherein

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the chief Difference of each Case in the Alternate Rule depends, &c. Not but that I could have inserted many various Examples, as also the Manner of composing Medicines, &c. which, for Brevity sake, I have omitted, and refer those that desire to see into that Business to Sir Jonas More's Arithmetick, wherein he will find it largely handled. And fo I shall conclude with Alligation Alternate, which altho' it gives true Answers to Questions of that Kind, with some little Variety, according as the Ingredients are more or less in Number; as appears by the foregoing Examples; yet it will not give all the Answers such Questions are capable of, nor perhaps those which suit best with the present Occasion: Nor can this Impersection be remedied by common Arithmetick; but by an Algebraick way of arguing it may; whereby all the possible Answers to any Question may be clearly and eafily discovered; as shall be shewed further on in the Second Part.

CHAP. X.

Of Metals and their Specifick Gyabities, &c.

Sect. 1. Of Gold and Silver.

PURE Gold, free from Mixture with other Metals, usually called Fine Gold, is of such a Nature and Purity that it will endure the Fire without wasting, although it be kept continually melted: And therefore some of the ancient Philosophers have supposed the Sun to be a Globe of liquid or melted Gold.

Silver having not the Purity of Gold, will not endure the Fire like it: Yet Fine Silver will waste but a very little by being in the Fire any reasonable time; whereas Copper, Tin, Lead, &c. will not only waste, but may be calcined or burnt

to a Powder.

Both Gold and Silver in their Purity, are so very flexible or soft (like new Lead, &c.) that they are not so useful either in Coin, or otherwise (except to beat in Leaf-Gold or Silver) as when they are allay'd, or mixed and hardened with Copper or Brass. And altho' most Places differ more or less in the Quantity of such Allay, yet in England it is generally agreed on, that,

Standard for Gold.

22 Carats of Fine Gold, and 2 Carats of Copper, being melted together, shall be esteemed the true Standard for Gold Coin, &c. (The French and Spanish Gold being very near of the same Standard.) That is, if any Quantity or Weight of Fine Gold, be divided into Twenty-four equal Parts, and 22 of those Parts be mixed with 2 of the like Parts of Copper; that Mixture is called Standard Gold.

Whence you may observe, that a Carat is not any certain Quantity or Weight, but $\frac{1}{2\pi}$ part of any Quantity or Weight; and the Minters and Goldsmiths divide it into 4 equal Parts, which they call Grains of a Carat; also they subdivide one of those Grains, into Halves, Quarters, &c.

Standard for Silver.

Eleven Ounces and Two Penny-weight of Fine Silver, and Eighteen Penny-weight of Copper being melted together, is esteemed the true Standard for Silver Coin, called Sterling Silver. And so in Proportion for a greater or lesser Quantity; which is a less Proportion of Allay for Silver, than the other is for Gold.

Note, When either Silver or Gold is finer than Standard, it is called Better; if coarser, it is called Worse; and that Betterness or Worseness, is reckond by Carats and Grains of a Carat in Gold, and by Penny-weights in Silver; and is thus discovered: The Goldsmiths or Refiners, &c. take a small Quantity of such Gold as they intend to try (which they call making an Asiay) and weigh it very exactly, then they put it into a Crucible, and melt it in a strong Fire, so long, that if there be any Copper, or other Allay mixt with it, that Allay may be confumed or burnt away: When it is cold they weigh it very exactly again, and if it have lost nothing of it's first Weight, they conclude it is Fine Gold, but if the Loss be 1/24 Part, they call it 23 Carats Fine, or one Carat better than Standard: If it have lost 2 Parts it is 22 Carats fine, or Standard: If 3 Parts, it is said to be 21 Carats fine, or rather one Carat worse than Standard, and so in Proportion as it happens to be better or worfe.

In the same Manner they make their Assay on Silver, only they

compute it's Loss by Penny-weights, &c.

The Author of the Present State of England, mentioned before (tage 32.) says,

That

- That the English Coin may want neither the Purity nor
- Weight required, it is most wisely and carefully provided, that
- once every Year the chief Officers of the Mint appear before the
- Lords of the Council in the Star-Chamber at Westminster, with
- fome Pieces of all forts of Monies coined the foregoing Year, taken at adventure out of the Mint, and kept under several
- Locks, by several Persons, 'till that Appearance, and then by
- a Jury of 24 able Goldsmiths, in the Presence of the said Lords,
- 's every Piece is most exactly weighed and assay'd.'

This if it were constantly practised would keep our Coin to it's true Standard, &c.

Many pretty Questions may be started concerning the Fineness of Gold and Silver, &c.

EXAMPLE 1.

If an Ingot of Silver weighing 787 Oz. 14 Pwt. 6 Grains, be 11 Oz. 6 Pwt. fine; How much fine Silver is there in it, and what amounts it to, at $5 ext{ s. } 1\frac{1}{2} ext{ d.}$ the Ounce?

This Ingot is better than Standard by 4 Pwt. For 11 Oz. 2 Pwt. = 222 Pwt. the fine Silver in 12 Oz. of Standard. But 11 Oz. 6 Pwt. = 226 Pwt. the fine Silver in 12 Oz. according to the Question.

First 787 Oz. 14 Pwt. 6 Grains = 378102 Grains.

And 12 Ounces = 240 Pwt.

Then, As 240: 226:: 378102: 356046 $\frac{1}{20}$ = 741 Oz. 15 Pwt. 6 $\frac{1}{20}$ Grains the fine Silver in that Ingot.

Which at 5 s. 1½ d. the Ounce, amounts to 190 l. 1 s. 6 d. and near a Half-penny.

EXAMPLE 2.

If an Ingot of Gold weighing 115 Oz. 13 Pwt. 18 Grains; be $\frac{1}{4}$ of a Grain worse than Standard: How much Standard Gold is there in it, and what comes it to at 3 l. 11s. an Ounce?

First 115 Oz. 13 Pwt. 18 Grains = 55530 Grains Troy. Then 24) 55530 (2313,75 = a Carat of that Quantity. And 4) 2313,75 (578,4375 = a Grain of that Carat. Consequently 4) 578,4375 (144,609375 = $\frac{1}{4}$ of a Grain.

Again, 2313,75 × 22 = 50902,5 ought to be the fine Gold in that Ingot, if it had been Standard:

But

But 50902,5-144,609375=50757,890625 is the Quantity of find Gold according to the Question. Therefore 509025: 50757,890625:: 55530: 55372,244 &c. Grains = 115 Oz. 7 Pwt. 4,244 &c. Grains Troy, being the Quantity of Standard Gold in that Ingot, as was required.

Next for the Value of it at 3 l. 11 s. per Ounce; 10z = 480 Grains; and 3 l. 11 s. = 71 s. Consequently $480 : 71 :: 55372,244 &c. : 8190,4777 &c. = <math>409 l. 10 s. 5\frac{3}{4} d.$ very

near; being the Value of that Ingot, as was required.

Or the last Question may be otherwise wrought thus; 115 Oz. 13 Pwt. 18 Grains = 115,6875. And $\frac{1}{4}$ of a Grain of a Carat is $\frac{1}{16}$ (viz. the $\frac{1}{4}$ of $\frac{1}{4}$) Then 22 $-\frac{1}{16}$ = 21 $\frac{15}{16}$ = 21,9375. Consequently 22: 21,9375:: 115,6875: 115,358842 &c. = 115 Oz. 7 Pwt. 4,244 Grains, &c. as before.

Next for the Value; as 1:3,55::115,358842:409,523,889

= 409 l. 10 s. $5\frac{3}{4} d$. very near: as before.

Sect. 2. The Specifick Gravity of Metals, &c.

- I Take an Enquiry made about the different Gravities, or Weights of Metals, and other Bodies, to be (not only a Work of Curiofity, but also) of very good Use upon many Occasions. Therefore several Authors have given us such Proportions, or Difference of their Weights, as they are said to have one to another; supposing every one of them to be of the same Magnitude or Bigness. Some of which I shall here insert.
- 1. Henry Van Etten, in his Mathematical Recreations, printed Anno 1633, sets down the Proportion of their Weights thus; Gold 1875. Lead 1165. Silver 1040. Copper 910. Iron 810. Tin 750. Water 100.
- 2. One Aisted, in his Encyclopædia, printed Anno 1649, hath them thus: Gold 1875. Quicksilver 1500. Lead 1165. Silver 1040. Copper 910. Iron 806. Tin 750. Honey 150. Water 100. Oil 90. These seem to be taken from those of Van Etten's, with some Additions only.
- 3. The ingenious Mr Oughtred, in his Circles of Proportions, printed Anno 1660, hath their Proportions (according to the Experiments of one Marinus Ghetaldi, in his Tract called Archimedes Promotus) thus: Gold 3990. Quickfilver 2850. Lead 2415. Silver 2170. Brass 1890. Iron 1680. Tin 1554.

4. In the Philosophical Transactions, (Number 169 and 199) there is an Account of a great many Experiments of this Kind; from whence I collected these following, viz. Gold 18888. Mercury 14019. Lead 11343. Silver 11087. Copper 8843. Hammered Brass 8349. Cast Brass 8100. Steel 7852. Iron 7643. Tin 7321. Pump-water 1000.

These last Proportions being approved of and published by Order of the Royal Society seem to be unquestionably true: Nevertheless, because they differ so much from the beforementioned (and those from one another) I have for my own Satisfaction made several Experiments of that Kind: And have (I presume) obtained the Proportions of Weight that one Body bears to another of the same Bulk or Magnitude, as nicely as the Nature of such Matter, which may be contracted or brought into a lesser Body (viz. either by Drying, or Hammering, or otherwise) will admit of; which are as follow:

r_	Ounces Troy. Ounces Avoird.
Fine Gold, is	10,359273 = 11,365602
Standard Gold	9,962625 = 10,930422
Quicksilver	7,384411 = 8,101753
Lead	5,984010 = 6,553885
Fine Silver	5,850035 = 6,418324
Standard Silver	5,556769 = 6,096569
Rose Copper	4,747121 = 5,208369
Plate Brass	4,404273 = 4,832116
	4,272409 = 4,630300
Steel	4,142127 = 4,544505
Common Iron	4,031361 = 4,422979
Block Tin	3,861519 = 4,236638
Fine Marble	1,429411 = 1,568859
Common Glass	1,360841 = 1,493037
Alabaster	0,988456 = 1,084477
Dry Ivory	0,962083 = 1,055542
Dry Box-wood	0,543282 = 0,596057
Sea Water	0,542742 = 0,594894
Common clear Water	0,527458 = 0,578697
Red Wine	0,523766 = 0,574646
Proof Spirits of Brandy	
Sound Dry Oak	0,489008 = 0,536569
Linseed Oil	0,491591 = 0,539345
Oil Olive	0,481569 = 0,528350
	7,7,203,4

A Cubick Inch of In this Table you have the Specifick Gravity or Weight of a Cubic Inch, of various forts of Bodies, both in Troy Ounces and Avoirdupois Ounces, and Decimal Parts of an Ounce, which I can assure you required more Charge, Care, and Trouble, to find out nicely, than I was at first aware of.

Now from hence it will be easy to determine the Weight of any proposed Quantity, of the same Matter and Kind with those in the Table; it's Solid Content being given in Cubic Inches. For it is plain, that if the Number of Cubic Inches contained in any given Quantity, be multiplied with the tabular Weight of one Inch, (of the same Kind of Matter) the Product will be the Weight of that Quantity in Ounces, &c.

EXAMPLE.

Suppose it were required to find the Weight of a Piece of Marble, containing three Solid Feet, and 40 Cubic Inches.

First 1728 × 3 = 5184 the Cubic Inches in 3 Solid Feet.

And 5184 + 40 = 5224 the Number of Cubic Inches in the Piece of Marble.

Then $5224 \times 1,429411 = 7410,066624$ Ounces Troy. Or $5224 \times 1,568859 = 8195,719416$ Ounces Avoirdupois.

The Weight of that Piece of Marble, in Ounces, &c. which is easily brought into Pounds, &c. The like for any of the rest.

The Converse of this Work is as easy; viz. if the Weight of any proposed Quantity be given, thence to find the Solid Content of that Quantity in Cubic Inches, &c.

Thus, divide the given Weight of the proposed Quantity (it being first reduced into Ounces, &c.), by the tabular Weight of one Inch (of the same Kind of Matter), and the Quotient will be the Number of Cubic Inches contained in that Quantity.

Note, If you would find what Weight any Quantity of those Bodies mentioned in the Table will have, when it is immersed or put into Water, you must substract the Weight of an equal Quantity of Water (with that of the Body), from the Weight of the proposed Body (if it be heavier than Water), and there will remain the Weight required. As for Instance,

A Cubic Inch of Lead = 5,984010 } Ounces Troy, &c. A Cubic Inch of SeaWater = 0,542742 } Ounces Troy, &c.

their Difference is = 5,441268 the Weight of a Cubic Inch of Lead in the Water, &c.

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CHAP. XI.

Evolution, or Extracting the Roots out of all Single Powers; by one Geometrical Method.

SECT. I.

EVolution is the Unravelling, or as it were the Unfolding and Resolving any proposed Power or Number, into the same Parts of which it was composed, or supposed to be made up. Now in order to perform that, it will be convenient to consider

how those Powers are composed, &c.

A Square Number is that which is equally equal; or which is contained under two equal Numbers. Euclid. 7. Def. 18. Thus the Square Number 4 is composed of the two equal Numbers 2 and 2. viz. $2 \times 2 = 4$. Or the Square Number 9 is composed of the two equal Numbers 3 and 3. viz. $3 \times 3 = 9$: according to Euclid. That is, if any Number be multiplied into itself; that Product is called a Square Number.

A Cube is that Number which is equally equally equal, or which is contained under three equal Numbers. Eucl. 7. Def. 19. Thus the Cube Number 8 is composed of the three equal Numbers 2 and 2 and 2. viz. $2 \times 2 \times 2 = 8$, &c. That is, if any Number be multiplied into itself, and that Product be multiplied with the same Number; the second Product is called a Cube

Number.

These two, viz. the Square and Cube Numbers, borrow their Names from Geometrical Extensions or Figures; as from the three Signal Quantities mentioned in page 2. That is, a Root is represented by a Line or Side, having but one Dimension, viz. that of Length only. The Square is a Plane or Figure of two Dimensions, having equal Length and Breadth. The Cube is a Solid Body of three Dimensions; having equal Length, Breadth, and Thickness: But beyond these three, Nature proceeds not, as to Local Extension. That is, the Nature of Place or Space, admits no Room for other ways of Extension, than Length, Breadth, and Thickness. Neither is it possible to form, or compose any Figure or Body beyond that of a Solid.

And therefore all the superior Powers above the Cube or third Power; as the Biquadrat or sourth Power, the Sursolid or sisth Power, &c. are best explained and understood by a Rank or Series of Numbers in Geometrical Proportion. For Instance: Suppose any Rank of Geometrical Proportionals, whose first Term and Ratio are the same; and to them let there be affigued a Series

R 2

of Numbers in Arithmetical Progression, beginning with an Unit or 1, whose common Difference is also 1, as in page 79.

Thus, \{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \ 2 & 4 & 8 & 16 & 32 & 64 & 128 & & \end{pmatrix}.

Then are those Numbers in : produced by a continued Multiplication of the first Term or Root into itself; and those in Arithmetical Progression or Indices, do shew what Degree or Power each Term in the Geometrical Proportion is of. For Example; In this Series of : 2 is both the first Term or Root, and common Ratio of the Series. Then $2 \times 2 = 4$ the second Term or Square; and $2 \times 2 \times 2 = 8$, or $4 \times 2 = 8$, the Cube or third Term; $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 16$, or $8 \times 2 = 16$ the fourth Term or Biquadrat. And so on for the rest.

Note, This is called Involution, viz. When any Number is drawn into itself, and afterwards into that Product, &c. it is said to be so often involved into itself; and the Indices are the Exponents of their respective Powers so involved.

And according to these Involutions, is formed the following Table of Powers; wherein the Root is only one single Figure.

This Table plainly shews (by Inspection) any Power (under the Tenth) of all the nine Figures; and from thence may be taken the nearest Root of any Square, Cube, Biquadrat, &c. of any Number whose Root or Side is a single Figure.

But

But if the Root consists of two, three, or more places of Figures, then it must be found by piece-meal, or Figure after Figure, at several Operations.

The Extraction of all Roots, above the Square (viz. of the Cube, Biquadrat, Surfolid, &c.) hath heretofore been a very tedious and troublesome Piece of Work: All which is now very much

shortened, and rendered easy, as will appear further on.

When any Number is proposed to have it's Root extracted, the first Work is to prepare it, by Points set over (or under) their proper Figures; according as the given Power, whose Root is sought doth require; and that is done by considering the Index of the given Power, which for the Square is 2, for the Cube 3, for the Biquadrat is 4, &c. (as in the precedent Table) Then allow so many Places of Figures in the given Power, for each single Figure of the Root, as it's Index denotes; always beginning those Points over the Place of Unity, and ascend towards the Lest-Hand if the given Number be Integers, and descend towards the Right-Hand in Decimal Parts. As in these following.

Suppose any given Number; as 75640387246 which I shall all

along hereafter call the Resolvend.

Then if it be required to extract any of the following Roots, it must be pointed (according to the forementioned Consideration) in this manner:

Then for the Square Root Thus 0,6740359820

Cube Root 0,674035982

Biquadrat Root 0,674035982000

Now the Reason of pointing the given Resolvend in this manner; viz. the allowing two Figures in the Square; three Figures in the Cube, and sour Figures in the Riquadrat, &c. for one Figure in the Root, may be made evident several ways; but I think it is easily conceived from the Table of single Powers, wherein you may observe that all the Powers of the Figure 9 (which

(which is but a fingle Figure) have the same Number of Places of Figures, as the Index of those Powers denotes: Therefore so many Places of Figures must be taken or affigned for every single Figure in the Root. Consequently by these Points is known how many Places of Figures there will be in the Root, viz. So many Points as there are, so many Figures there must be in the Root, and whether they must be Integers or Decimal Parts, is easily determined by the respective Places of the Points.

Sect. 2. To Extract the Square Root.

AND first how to extract the Square Root, according to the common Method.

Having pointed the given Resolvend into Periods of two Figures as before directed; then by the Table of Powers (or otherwise) find the greatest Square that is contained in the first Period towards the Left-Hand (setting down it's Root, like a Quotient Figure in Division) and substract that Square out of the said Period of the Resolvend: To the Remainder bring down the next Period of Figures, for a Dividend, and double the Root of the first Square for a Divisor; enquiring how oft it may be had in that Dividend, so as when the Quotient Figure is annexed to the Divisor, and that increased Divisor multiplied with the same Quotient Figure, the Product may be the greatest Number that can be taken out of that Dividend; which substract from the said Dividend, and to the Remainder bring down the next Period of Figures, for another new Dividend: Then see how often the last increased Divisor, can be had in the new Dividend (with the same Caution as before, viz.), so as that the Quotient Figure being annexed to the Divisor, and that increased Divisor multiplied with the same Quotient Figure, their Product may be the greatest Number that can be substracted from the new Dividend. (As before) And so proceed on from Period to Period (viz. from Point to Point) in the very fame Manner, until all be finished.

An Example or two being well observed will render the Work of forming the new Divisors, &c. more plain and easy than can be expressed in a Multitude of Words.

Example 1. Let it be required to extract the Square Root out of 572199960721. This Resolvend being prepared or pointed as before directed, will stand

Thus,

Thus, 572199960721 (756439 the Root. 49 = the greatest Square in 57.

1. Divisor 145) $725 = 145 \times 5$ 2. Divisor 1506) 9699 $9036 = 1506 \times 6$ 3. Divisor 66396 $60496 = 15124 \times 4$ 4. Divisor 151283) 590007 $453849 = 151283 \times 3$ 5. Divisor 1512869) 13615821 $13615821 = 1512869 \times 9$

Proof $756439 \times 756439 = 572199960721$ the Resolvend.

Example 2. What is the Square Root of 1850701,764025?

Operation 1850701,764025 (1360,405

1
23) 85
3 69
266) 1607
6 1596

1101,76
4 1088 16

1720805) 13 604025
5 13 604025
(0)

Ex. 3. What is the Square Root of 0,06076225 Decimal Parts?

Operation 0,06076225 (0,2465 the Root required.

What is here done in whole Numbers, mixed Numbers, and Decimals, may also be done in Vulgar Fractions; if you first change the given Fraction into Decimals. (As in Sect. 5. p. 68.)

Example 4. Let it be required to extract the Square Root of $\frac{16}{25}$. First $\frac{16}{25} = 0.64$

Then 0,64 (,8 the Root required.

,64

(0)

In these four Examples the Resolvend hath been a persect Square; and therefore the Root hath been extracted without leaving any Remainder: But it very often happens that the Resolvend is not a true Figurate Number, according to the proposed Power. That is, it is not a persect Square, Cube, Biquadrat, &c. and then something will remain after the Extraction hath been made throughout all the Points. Such Numbers are called Surd Numbers, and their Roots can never be truly found, but will become a continued Series, ad infinitum: If to the Remainder there be still annexed Cyphers according as the proposed Power requires, viz. by two's in the Square; three's in the Cube, sour's in the Biquadrat, &c. And the Operations continued on as before.

Example 5. Suppose it were required to extract the Square Root

of 6968.

Then the Root of any Surd Number may be continued on to

what Exactness you please, but cannot be truly found.

In my Compendium of Algebra, Chap. 9. I have proposed another Way of extracting the Square Root, and there given Examples of the Work; which to avoid Prolixity is thus;

Having

Having pointed the given Resolvend, and taken the greatest Square to the first Point from it, as before. Then divide the Remainder of the whole Resolvend by 2 (that is, half it) and point it a-new. (This I call a new Dividend) Then make the Root of the first Square a Divisor, inquiring how oft it may be found in the new Dividend to the next figure forward, reserving that Figure under the next Point for the half Square of the Quotient Figure. Which being found, multiply the Divisor with it, adding to that Product the Tens of the half Square if there be any, as in plain Division. Then annex the Quotient Figure to the last Divisor for a new Divisor, with which proceed in all Respects as with the last Divisor; and so on until all be finished.

Example 6. What is the Square Root of 2990667969

Operation 2990667969

- 25 (5 The first single Root
2) 490667969 The Remainder to be divided by 2.

First Root 5) 245333984,5 (54687 +4 208 = 5 · × 4: $+\frac{1}{2}$ the Square of 4, viz. $\frac{16}{2}$ = 8. Divisor 54) 3733 +6 3258 = 54 × 6: $+\frac{1}{2}$ the Square of 6. Divisor 546) 47539 +8 43712 = 546 × 8: $+\frac{1}{2}$ the Square of 8. Divisor 5468) 382784,5 +7 382784,5 = 5468 × 7: $+\frac{1}{2}$ the Square of 7.

Hence the Root is found to be 54687, as was required.

All the Difficulty in this Method is only the true placing of the half Square of the Quotient Figure, when it happens to be an odd Number: In that Case you must bring down one Figure more of the Dividend; viz. of the next Period; under which, place the odd 5 that will always arise from the half Square of an odd Number: As 7 whose Square is 49; the Half of which is 24,5 to be placed as in the last Operation of this Example.

N.B. When the Number of Figures in the Root of any Surd Number is limited; you need not proceed in extracting the whole Root as before; but only to one Figure more than half the designed Number of Figures; for the rest may be obtained by plain Division only:

Example 7. Suppose it were required to extract the Square Root of 7 (a Surd Number) to have 12 Places of Figures in it.

Remainder
$$\frac{4}{3}$$
.

1,50 = Half the Remainder.

+,6

2,6)

1200

+,04

1048

2,64)

152000

+,005

132125

2,6457

+,0007

1851745

13575500

+,00005

2,64575)

+,000001

2,045751

8229995

Having thus got 7 of the 12 Figures required in the Root; the rest may be easily found by the contract Way of Division proposed in page 68.

Hence I find the Root of 7 to be 2,64575131106, as was required.

Thus you have two ways of extracting the Square Root, either of which may be practifed as every one likes best.

Sect. 3. To extract the Cube Root.

THE Method I shall here propose for extracting the Cube Root admits of two Cases; both which are to be very well observed.

Having pointed the given Resolvend, (as before directed) viz. into Periods of three Figures; then seek a Cube Number by the Table of Powers (or otherwise) that comes nearest to the first Period of the Resolvend, whether it be greater or less than that Period.

Case 1. If the Cube Number so taken, be less than the first Period of the Resolvend, call it's Root Less than Just: And sub-

stract that Cube from the first Period of the Resolvend.

Case 2. But if that Cube be greater than the first Period of the Resolvend, call it's Root More than Just: And substract the Resolvend from that Cube, annexing Cyphers to it, that so

Substraction may be made.

To the first Root, whether it be less or more than just, annex so many Cyphers as there are remaining Points over the whole Numbers of the Resolvend, and multiply it with 3: Then making that Product a Divisor, by which you must divide the Difference between the Resolvend and the foresaid Cube; that Quotient will be the Resolvend depressed to a Square, and therefore must be pointed as fuch, viz. into Periods of two Figures each. That being done, make the first Root (without those Cyphers that were annexed to it) a Divisor, enquiring how oft it may be found in the first Period of the new Resolvend (as before in extracting the Square Root) with this Confideration, that if the Root (now a Divisor) be less than just, as in Case 1. you must annex the Quotient Figure to it, and then multiply the Root so increased, into the said Quotient Figure; fetting down the Unit's Place of their Product under the pointed Figure of that Period, substracting it, as in Division. And so on from one Period to another, as before.

But if the said Root (now a Divisor) be more than just, as in Case 2. Then you must substract the Quotient Figure from a Cypher annexed, or supposed to be annexed, to the said Divisor; multiplying the Root so decreased into the Quotient Figure; setting down their Product as before, &c. An Example or two in

each Case will render the Work plain and easy.

Note, Each Quotient Figure ought always to be twice added to the Divisor, if the Tabular Cube was taken less than just, or twice substracted from it, if greater; viz. once before you multiply by it, and once with the next Quotient Figure: as will be shewn in the following Examples; which are therefore more exact and concise than as done by the Author in all the former Editions of his Work.

S 2

Example

th

ca

Ex. 1. What is the Cube Root of 146363183 the given Reselvend, to be pointed thus 146363183 (the first Root, less than just.

125 = the nearest Cube to 146 500 × 3 = 1500) 21363183 (14242,12 new Resolvend

1 Divisor 52)

1 Divisor 52)

14242,12 (527 the Root required.

2 Divisor 547)

13 the Remainder to be rejected.

Here the Root 527 is the true Root at the first Operation, as

may be eafily tried by involving it.

That is $527 \times 527 \times 527 = 146363183$ the given Resolvend. But if it had not been the true Root, then every thing that hath been here done noust have been repeated; only instead of the first single Root (viz. 5) you must have taken the increased Root (viz. 527) and this scall a second Operation; which would increase the last Root to nire Places of Figures; viz. every Operation triples the Number of Places in the last Root; as will appear further on.

N. B. It is ten hat ins that four, five, and sometimes more Places of Figures may be taken into the Root: especially when the second Place proves to be a Cypher. That is, when the first Cube comes very near to the first Period of the Resolvend.

EXAMPLE 2.

What is the Cube Root of 67507824239 (4000 Root less than First nearest Cube = 64 [just.

Root $4000 \times 3 = 12000$) 3507824239 (292318,68 ., First Root 4)

In this Example I have taken fix Figures into the Roots, because the second Place proved to be a Cypher. And in these fix the

the Excess is not an Unit in the last Place; for if there were made a second Operation, the Root would be 4071,78 &c. as may be easily tried.

EXAMPLE 3.

Let it be required to extract the Cube Root out of this Number;

Viz. 976379602989073960279630298890

- 976379602989073960279630298890 the Resolvend.

Remains 23620397010926039720369701110

The first Root 100000000000 $\times 3 = 30000000000$ the Divisor.

Then 30000000000) 23620397010926039720369701110 (78734-6567030867990 for a new Resolvend.

Ist Root 10

T Div. 993)
$$787346567030867990$$
 0079364 &c. substract. 0079364 &c. substract. 0079364 &c. substract. 0079364 &c. substract. 0079364 &c. substract. Remains 9920636000 the Root true to the fixth Figure, and only too little by an Unit at the seventh, at the first Operation. 0079364 &c. 0079364 &c. 0079364 &c. 0079364 &c. 0079364 &c. 0079364 &c. 0079364 &c. substract. Remains 9920636000 the Root true to the fixth Figure, and only too little by an Unit at the seventh, at the first Operation. 0079364 &c. 0

For a second Operation (if you require no more than ten Places of Figures true in the Root) you need only assume 992000000; which being less than just, proceed with as follows:

Remainder 18811498907396 &c.

Then 3×992 &c. = 2976 &c.) 18811498907396 &c. (6321068181 &c. for a new Resolvend.

99200)		1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
+ 06		19920000000 the Root assumed,
99206)	6321068181	637163,5 add
+63	595236	9920637163,5 the Root true to
992123)	3687081	the tenth Figure, and only
+ 37	2976369	too much by an Unit in the
	71071281	eleventh,
+ 7 &cc	69448869	
992127*)	1622412	* Here the Additions of the Quo-
* * * *	992127	tient Figure being of no Con-
	630285	fequence, therefore the Divi-
	595276	fion is carried on from hence, as in page 68.
	35009	as in page 00.
	29763	
	5240	
	4960	
	&c.	

In the same manner the Cube Roots of Decimal Parts; or of Vulgar Fraction's, being first changed into Decimals; may be extracted.

Sect. 4. To extract the Biquadrat Root,

IN extracting the Biquadrat Root, or that of the Fourth Power; (and indeed the Roots of all even Powers) there are some small Difficulties, not so easily expressed and explained in a sew Words, as they are by an Algebraick Theorem; (such as shall be shewed surther on) I have therefore in this Place made choice of extracting such Roots by two several Extractions, and the rather, because I presume the Reader by this Time thoroughly acquainted with the Business of extracting the Square Root, by which this may easily be performed. Thus:

First, Extract the Square Root of the proposed Resolvend, then the Square Root of that first Root will be the Biquadrat Root required.

Example 1. What is the Biquadrat Root of 4857532416? First extract it's Square Root,

Thus

Thus 4857532416

- 36 = the greatest Square, whose Root is 6.

1257532410 Remainder to be divided by 2.

Then 69696 { being the first Root, whose Square Root must now be extracted.

| Then 69696 | The first Root, whose Square Root must now be extracted. | Remainder to be divided by 2.

This is so easy I need not insert any more Examples.

Sect. 5. To extract the Sursolid Root.

HAVING pointed the given Resolvend according as it's Index denotes; viz. into Periods of five Figures; seeking such a Sursolid Number in the Table of Powers (or otherwise) as comes the nearest to the first Period of the Resolvend, whether greater or less, and call it's respective Root accordingly, viz. more than just, or less than just; annexing so many Cyphers to it, as there are remaining Periods of whole Numbers in the Resolvend; as before in extracting the Cube Root: Then find the Difference between the Resolvend, and the Sursolid Number so taken, by substracting the lesser from the greater (as before in the Cube). Next find the Cube of the aforesaid Sursolid Root with it's annexed Cyphers, (which you may also do by the Table of Powers) and multiply that Cube with 5 the Index of the Sursolid, the Product must be a Divisor, by which the Difference between the Resolvend and the Sursolid Number must be divided; that so it may be depressed

to a Square (as before in the Cube) which must be pointed into Periods of two Figures each, calling it the new Resolvend (as before). Then make the first Root, without it's Cyphers, a Divisor, enquiring how oft it may be found in the first Period of the new Resolvend, with this Consideration, if the Root (now a Divisor) be less than just, you must annex twice the Quotient Figure to it; but if it be more than just, you must substract twice the Quotient Figure from a Cypher either annexed, or supposed to be annexed to that Divisor or Root, multiplying it so increased or diminished, with the said Quotient Figure, setting down their Product, &c. as before. An Example in each Case will render it plain and easy.

Example 1. Suppose it be required to extract the Sursolid Root out of this Number 12309502009375.

12309502009375 the Refolvend pointed.

The nearest Sursolid Number to 1230, the first Period of the Resolvend, is 1024, whose Root is 4 being less than just.

Next the Cube of 400 is 64000000 per Table, &c. And 64000000 \times 5 = 320000000 the Divisor.

Then 320000000) 2069502009375 (6497 &c.

First Root 400

$$+2 \times 10 = +20$$
 ... (400
1 Divisor 420) 6467 (+15
 $+20+2 \times 5 = +30$ 42 415 Root true
450 2267
2250

17 the Remainder to be rejected.

That is 415 is the Sursolid Root of the given Resolvend. As may be easily tried by involving it to the fifth Power. Viz. 415 × 415 × 415 × 415 = 12309502009375 the given Resolvend.

Note, Here again the double Quotient Figure ought to be twice added or substracted, in the same Manner as the single one was directed for the Cube Root, page 131, and the Operation for the Surfolid Root in these two Examples is performed accordingly: contrary to what was heretofore done by the Author.

Example

Example 2. What is the Sursolid Root of 2327834559873

The nearest Sursolid Number to 232 is 243 whose Root is 3 being more than just.

The Cube of 300 is 27000000 and 27000000 \times 5 = 135000000 Then 135000000) 102165440127 (756,7810 new Refolvend.

First Root 300 $-2 \times 2 = -4$ (-2,566)1 Divisor 756,7810 296) 297,434 The Root $-4-2\times0,5=-5,0$ 592 only too little by 2 2 Divisor 291,0) 164,78 in the lowest Fi- $-1-2 \times 0,06 = -1,12$ 145,50 gure. 3 Divisor 289,88) 19,2810 &c. &c.

Now the Reason why this Root comes out to so many Places of Figures at the first Operation; is because the first Sursolid Number was so near the Resolvend, &c. As before.

Sect. 6. To extract the Root of the Square cubed.

THIS may be easily performed by two Extractions, according as it's Name denotes. Thus, first extract the Square Root of the given Resolvend; then extract the Cube Root of that Square Root, and it will be the Root required: That is, it will be the Root of the sixth Power. Or thus, first extract the Cube Root of the Resolvend; then extract the Cube Root of that Cube Root, and it will be the Root required.

EXAMPLE I.

Let it be required to extract the Square cubed Root out of this Number 145220537353515625 the Resolvend.

First I extract the Square Root of this Resolvend, which I take

to be the best and easiest Way.

Thus

* . .

Then 3) 27610268676757812,5 (381078125)
$$+ 8$$
 272 $- 380$ $-$

Having found the Square Root of the given Resolvend, I proceed to extract the Cube Root of that Square Root.

That is, of 381078125 -343 = the nearest Cube, it's Root is 700 Then $700 \times 3 = 2100$) 38078125 (18161

First Root 7..

$$+ \frac{2}{72.}$$
1 Divisor $\frac{18161}{72.}$
 $+ \frac{25}{2}$
2 Divisor $\frac{144}{725}$
 $\frac{3761}{3761}$
 $\frac{3725}{(36)}$

Hence I find 725 to be the Square cubed Root required; as may easily be tried by involving it to the fixth Power. That is, $725 \times 725 \times 725 \times 725 \times 725 \times 725 \times 725$ will be found = 14522053-7353515725 the given Resolvend.

Sect.

Sect. 7. To extract the Root of the seventh Power.

Having pointed the given Resolvend, as it's Index denotes, viz. into Periods of seven Figures, seek out such a Number of the seventh Power, by the Table of Powers, as comes nearest to the first Period of the Resolvend; whether it be greater or lesser, calling it's respective Root more than just, or less than just, annexing it's proper Number of Cyphers, &c. as in the Cube and Sursolid.

Then find the Difference between the given Resolvend, and that Number of the seventh Power (found by the Table of

Powers) by substracting the lesser from the greater.

Next find the Sursolid or fisth Power of that Root with it's annexed Cyphers (which you may also do by the Table of Powers) and multiply that Sursolid Number with 7, the Index of the given Resolvend; that Product must be a Divisor, by which the foresaid Difference must be divided, that so it may be depressed to a Square, to be pointed, &c. as before in the Cube, &c. then make the Root, without it's Cyphers, a Divisor; where Resolvend (as before) only here you would mercan, or white nish the Divisor with thrice the Quotient Figure 4.

Example. What is the second Sursolid Root, or that of the seventh Power,

of 382986553955078125 the Resolvend pointed.

— 2187 the nearest of the seventh Power.

164286553955078125 their Difference.

The first Root is 300 being less than just, and the fifth Power of 300 is 243000000000, which being multiplied with 7 is 1701000000000 for a Divisor, by which the aforesaid Difference must be divided; which contracted may stand thus,

1701) 16428655 (9658,23 &c.

First Root
$$300$$

 $+ 3 \times 20 = + 60$
1 Divisor 360) 9658 $(+25)$
 $60 + 3 \times 05 = + 75$ 72 $325 =$ the true Root re-
2 Divisor 435) 2458 [quired.
 2175
 283 the Remainder to be rejected, [as before.

^{*} That is, by twice adding or substracting the triple Quotient Figure, as was done with the double Quotient Figure for the Root of the fifth Power, page 136; and the fingle Quotient Figure for the Cube Root page 131.

Hence

Hence I have found 325 to be the true Root required, that is, the true Root of the seventh Power.

I think it needless to proceed farther; viz. to insert Examples of higher Powers. For if what is already done be well understood, it will be easy to conceive how to proceed in extracting the Root of any single Power how high soever it be (for the Method is general and alike in all Powers), due Regard being had to their Indices; and to the first single Side or Root. That is, whether it be more, or less than just, &c.

Yet methinks I hear the young Learner say, it is possible to follow the Directions and Examples, as they are here laid down; but still here is not the Reason why they are so, and so, performed; and why there should be a Remainder lest after the Root is found; viz. when the given Resolvend hath a true Root of it's

Kind.

It is true, the Reasons of these are not here laid down; neither indeed can they be rendered so plain and intelligible by Words, as by an Algebraick Process, from whence the Theorems or Rules here given, had their first Invention; as shall be shewed in the next Part, when I come to treat of resolving compounded or adsected Equations; however, take this short and general Account of this Method.

This, and all other of the new Methods of Converging Series (as they are called), are very different from the former (and still common) Methods of extracting Roots, which require the first single Side or Root of the first Period (in any Resolvend) to be taken exactly true, and then by involving, and other tedious Ways of ordering it, there is formed a Divisor; which helps to grope out by Trials a second Figure in the Root. And so proceed on from Point to Point; still repeating the whole Work for every single Figure that comes into the Root. And if by Chance there be a Mistake or Error committed in any one Figure (as it is possible there may) it spoils the whole Process, which must then be wholly begun anew, or at least from that Part of it where the Error sirst entered.

But the Nature and Design of the Method which I have here laid down is quite otherwise; it being so contrived, as to gradually lessen the Difference betwixt any proposed Power, and the like Power of another Number assumed; viz. it lessens that Difference until it is either quite vanquished, or becomes so infinitely small as to be insignificant.

Therefore when any Number is proposed to have it's Root extracted; it is here required to take the next nearest Root of the first Period in the Resolvend; that so the Difference betwixt the

given Resolvend, and the Homogeneal Power (viz. the like Power) of the Root thus taken, may be less either in Excess, or Defect. Which Difference being reduced, or depressed lower, becomes so prepared, that by plain Division (comparatively) there will arise such Quotient Figures, as will both correct and increase the first Root to three Places of Figures at least, sometimes to four or five Places of Figures; according as the faid first Difference happens to be more or less (of which you may have observed Instances): But yet there will be a Remainder left, and verhaps an Excess or Defect in the Root so increased, viz. in the last Figure of it.

Now to rectify the faid Excess or Defect in the Root, and to discover whether the given Resolvend be a true Figurate Number, or not: That is, whether it have a true Root of it's kind; it will be necessary to make a second Operation; by taking the Root so increased, and proceeding with it and the given Resolvend, in all respects as in the first Work (like to the third Example of extracting the Cube Root): I fay, if the given Refolvend have a true Root, it will appear at this fecond Operation, and all the aforesaid Differences, &c. will be vanquished; provided the Root required is not to have more than three (or four) Places of Figures in it.

But if the Root be to have more than three Figures in it; or, that the given Refolvend prove to be a Surd Number. Then there will be a Difference as before; which will afford Quotient Figures to rectify and increase the Root last taken, to three Times as many Places of Figures, as it had at the Beginning of that fecond Operation. As you may see in the aforesaid Example 3. of the Cube Root; wherein that Root is increased to twelve Places of Figures at two Operations; which if it were to be extracted the old (and still common) way, it would require at least forty times the Number of Figures I have here used.

Again, if there chance to be a Mistake committed in any Opération performed by the Method here laid down, that Mistake will not destroy the precedent Work, but will be rectified in the next Operation, although it were not discovered before. thus you may proceed on to a third Operation, which will afford 27 Places of Figures in the Root, &c. with very little Trouble.

if compared with former Methods.

The brief Account, which I have here given (by Way of explaining the Nature of this Method of extracting Roots) being well confidered and compared with the several Operations of the foregoing Examples, must needs help the Learner to form such an Idea of it, that he cannot (I presume) but understand how to proceed proceed in extracting the Root out of any fingle Power, how high foever it be; without the Help of an Algebraick Theorem. Not but when that comes to be once understood; the Work will be much readier and easier performed: As will appear in the next Part.

I did intend to have here inserted the whole Business of Interest and Annuities; but finding that it would require too large a Discourse, to shew the Grounds and Reasons of the several Theorems useful therein, I have therefore reserved that Work for the Close of the next Part. Neither indeed can the raising of those Theorems be so well delivered in Words, as by an Algebraick Way of arguing; which renders them not only much shorter, but also plainer and easier to be understood.

I have also omitted that Rule in Arithmetick, usually called the Rule of Position, or Rule of False: Because all such Questions, as can be answered by that guessing Rule, are much better done by any one who hath but a very small smattering of Algebra. I shall therefore conclude this Part of Numerical Arithmetick; and proceed to that of Algebraick Arithmetick, wherein I would advise the young Learner not to be too hasty in passing from one Rule to another, and then he will find it very easy to be attained.

AN

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

Mathematicks.

PART II.

PROËM.

perhaps it may seem (to some) very improper to write again upon the same Subject; but only (as the usual Custom is) to have referred my Reader to that Tract. However, because the following Parts of this Treatise are managed by an Algebraick Method of arguing; which may fall into the Hands of those who have not seen that Tract, or any other of that Kind; I thought it convenient to accommodate the young Geometer with the first Elements, or principal Rules, by which all Operations in this Art are performed; that so he may not be at a Loss as he proceeds farther on: Besides, what I formerly wrote was only a Compendium of that which is here fully handled at large.

The principal Rules are Addition, Substraction, Multiplication, Division, Involution, and Evolution, as in common Arithmetick, but differently performed; and therefore some call it Algebraick Arithmetick. Others call it Arithmetick in Specie, because all the Quantities concerned in any Question, remain in their substituted Letters (howsoever managed by Addition, Substraction, or Multiplication, &c.) without being destroyed or changed into others, as Figures in common Arithme-

tick are.

Mr. Harriot called it Logistica Speciola, or Specious Computation.

CHAP.

CHAP. I.

Concerning the Dethod of noting down Quantities; and tracing their Steps, &c.

Sect. 1. Of Motation.

THE Method of noting down Letters for Quantities is various, according to every one's Fancy; but I shall here sollow the same as in my sormer Tract, and represent the Quantity sought (be it Line or Number, &c.) by the small (a), and if more Quantities than one are sought, by the other small Vowels, e. u. or y.

The given Quantities are represented by the small Consonants,

b. c. d. f. g. &c.

And for Distinction sake, mark the Points or Ends of Lines in all Schemes, with the capital or great Letters, viz. A. B. C. D. &c.

When any Quantity (either given or fought) is taken more than once, you must prefix it's Number to it; as 3a stands for a taken three times, or three times a, and 7b stands for seven

times b, &c.

All Numbers thus prefixt to any Quantity, are called Coefficients or Fellow-Factors; because they multiply the Quantity; and if any Quantity be without a Coefficient, it is always supposed or understood to have an Unit prefixed to it; as a is 1a, or b is 1b, &c.

The Signs by which Quantities are chiefly managed are the fame, and have the same Signification, with those in the first Part, page 5. which I here presume the Reader to be very well acquainted with. To them must be here added these three more;

Viz. { the Sign of Evolution.

Evolution, or extracting Roots.

Irrationality, or Sign of a Surd Root.

All Quantities that are expressed by Numbers only (as in Vul-

gar Arithmetick) are called Absolute Numbers.

Those Quantities that are represented by single Letters, as, a. b. c. d. &c. or by several Letters that are immediately joined together; as ab. cd. or 7 bd. &c. are called Simple or Single whole Quantities.

But when different Quantities represented by different or unlike Letters, are connected together by the Signs (+ or -); as a+b, a-b, or ab-dc, &c. they are called Compound whole Quantities.

Again.

And when Quantities are expressed or set down like Vulgar Fractions, Thus $\frac{a}{b}$, or $\frac{a+b}{d}$, or $\frac{ab+dc}{b-c}$, &c. they are called Fractional or Broken Quantities.

The Sign wherewith Quantities are connected, always belongs to that Quantity which immediately follows it; and therefore all the Quantities concerned in any Question, may stand in any order at Pleasure, viz. the most convenient for the next Operation. As a+b-d may stand thus b-d+d, or thus a-d+b, or -d+a+b &c. these being still the same, the differently placed.

That Quantity which hath no Sign before it (as generally the leading Quantity hath not) is always understood to have the Sign + before it. As a is +a, or b-d is +b-d, &c. for the Sign + is the Affirmative Sign, and therefore all leading or positive Quantities are understood to have it, as well as those that are to be added.

But the Sign — being the Negative Sign, or Sign of Defect, there is a Necessity of prefixing it before that Quantity to which it belongs, wherever the Quantity stands.

Sect. 2. Of tracing the Steps used in bringing Quantities to an Equation.

THE Method of tracing the Steps, used in bringing the Quantities concerned in any Question to an Equation, is best performed by registering the several Operations with Figures and Signs placed in the Margin of the Work, according as the several Operations require; being very useful in long and tedious Operations.

For Instance: If it be required to set down and register the Sum of the two Quantities, a and b, the Work will stand,

Thus 1 a First set down the proposed Quantities, a and b, over-against the Figures 1, 2, in the small Column (which are here called Steps), and against 3

1+2/3 a+b (the third Step), set down their Sum, viz. a+b.

Then against that third Step, set down 1+2 in the Margin;
which denotes that the Quantities against the first and second Steps
are added together, and that those in the third Step are their Sum.

To illustrate this in Numbers, suppose a = 9, and b = 6. Then it will be,

Thus
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & a & = 9 \\ b & = 6 \end{vmatrix}$$

1+2 3 $a+b=9+6=15$ being the Sum of 9 and 6.

Again, If it were required to set down the Difference of the same two Quantities; then it will be,

Thus
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & a = 9 \\ 2 & b = 6 \end{vmatrix}$$

1-2 $\begin{vmatrix} 3 & a = b = 9 - 0 = 3 \end{vmatrix}$ the Diff. between 9 and 6.

Or if it were required to set down their Product. Then it will be,

Thus
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & a = 9 \\ 2 & b = 6 \end{vmatrix}$$

 $1 \times 2 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & a \times b \text{ or } ab = 9 \times 6 = 54 \text{ the Prod. of 9 into 6.} \end{vmatrix}$

Note, Letters fet or joined immediately together (like a Word) fignify the Rectangle or Product of those Quantities they represent; as in the last Example, wherein ab = 54 is the Product of a = 9 and b = 6. Sc.

Arioms.

1. If equal Quantities be added to equal Quantities, the Sum of these Quantities will be equal.

2. If equal Quantities be taken from equal Quantities, the

Quantities remaining will be equal.

3. If equal Quantities be multiplied with equal Quantities, their Products will be equal.

4. If equal Quantities be divided by equal Quantities, their

Quotients will be equal.

5. Those Quantities, that are equal to one and the same Thing, are equal to one another.

Note, I advise the Learner to get these sive Axioms perfectly by Heart.

These Things being premised, and a perfect Knowledge of the Signs and their Significations being gained, the young Algebraist may proceed to the following Rules. But first I must make bold to advise him here (as I have formerly done) that he be very ready in one Rule before he undertakes the next.

That is, He should be expert in Addition, before he meddles with Substraction; and in Substraction, before he undertakes Multiplication, &c. because they have a Dependency one upon mother.

CHAP. II.

Concerning the Six Principal Rules, of Algebraick Arithmetick, of whole Duantities.

Sect. 1. Addition of whole Quantities.

A DDITION of whole Quantities admits of three Cases.

Case 1. If the Quantities are like, and have like Signs; add the Co-efficients or prefixt Numbers together, and to their Sum adjoin the Quantities with the same Sign.

	1	Exam. 1.	Exam. 2.	Exam. 3.	Exam. 4. - 7bc - 8bc
1+2	3	2 a	-2a	$\frac{3b}{8b}$	1 — 15 bc
Thus	1	Exam. 5.			am. 7.
	1	30 + 56		_	
	2	2a+7b	2 a —	76 3at	+ 24
1+2	3	5a+12b	15a-1	2b 9ab	+ 36

The Reason of these Additions is evident from the Work of Common Arithmetick. For suppose a, to represent one Crown, to which if I add one Crown, the Sum will be two Crowns, or 2 a. as in Example 1.

Or if we suppose — a, to represent the Want or Debt of one Crown, to which if another Want or Debt of one Crown be added, the Sum must needs be the Want or Debt of two Crowns, or — 2a; as in Example 2. And so for all the rest.

Case 2. If the Quantities are alike, and have unlike Signs; substract the Co-efficients, from each other, and to their Difference join the Quantities with the Sign of the greater.

J		C	5 11 1611	111001	5.101 1110 5.1	
	1	Exam. 8.	Exa	m. 9.	Exam. 10.	
	1	+5a	-	_	7bc	- 9abd
	2	- 3a	+	3 a	- 6bc	+ 7 a b d
1+2	31	+ 2a	-	2 a	<u> </u>	-2abd
1.	1	Example 1	12.		Example 1	3.
	I	7 a —	56	-	8 a b - 7 b	c+15
	2	-5a+	76	+	12ab + 7b	c — 24
1-2	31	2 a +	26		400-9	
						/ *

U 2

The Reason of the Operations in this Case may be easily understood, by any one that duly considers the comparing of Stock and Debts together, or the ballancing of Accounts betwixt Debtor and Creditor. That is, the Affirmative Quantities represent the Stock or Creditor: The Negative Quantities represent the Debts; and their Sum represents the Ballance, &c.

Case 3. When the Quantities are unlike, set them all down, without altering their Signs; and thence will arise compound Quantities, which can be no otherwise added but by their Signs.

Thus
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & a & a & 5b + 7dc \\ 2 & b & -b & 4a + 20 \end{vmatrix}$$

 $1+2 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & a+b \end{vmatrix} = a - b \begin{vmatrix} 5b + 7dc + 4a - 20 \end{vmatrix}$

Here follow a few Examples wherein all the 3 Cases are promiscuously concerned.

Sect. 2. Substraction of whole Quantities.

SUBSTRACTION of whole Quantities is performed by one general Rule.

RULE.

Change all the Signs of the Substrahend (viz. of those Quantities which are to be substracted) or suppose them in your Mind to be changed; then add all the Quantities together, as before in Addition, and their Sum will be the true Remainder or Difference required.

This general Rule is deduced from these evident Truths.

To substract an Affirmative Quantity, from an Affirmative, is the same as to add a Negative Quantity to an Affirmative: that is +2a taken from +3a, is the same with -2a added to +3a. Consequently, to substract a Negative Quantity from an Affirmative, will be the same as to add an Affirmative Quantity to an Affirmative: that is -2a taken from +3a will be the same with +2a added to +3a.

If these 13 Examples be compared with those in Addition, the Work will appear very evident, these being only the Converse or Proof of those; according to the Nature of Addition and Sub-straction in common Arithmetick.

More Examples in Substraction.

That a - b taken from a + b leaves + 2b for the Remainder, as in the first of these Examples, may be thus proved:

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & a+b=z \\ a-b=x \end{vmatrix}$$

2 + b | 3 | $a=x+b$ | per Axiom 1.
1 - 3 | 4 | $b=z-x-b$. per Axiom 2.
4 + b | 5 | $2b=z-x$ which was to be proved.

The Truth of all Operations in Substraction, where any Doubt arises, may be proved, by adding the Substrahend to the Remainder, as in Common Arithmetick.

From $\begin{vmatrix} I & +5a & 0 & -9bc \\ 2 & -2a & +3b & -6da & Substrahend. \end{vmatrix}$ Take $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & -2a & +3b & -6da & Substrahend. \end{vmatrix}$ Substrahend. $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & +7a & -3b & +6da & -9bc & Remainder. \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & +3 & 4 & +5a & 0 & 9bc & Proot. \end{vmatrix}$

Sect. 3. Pultiplication of whole Quantitics.

MULTIPLICATION of whole Quantities admits of three Cases.

Case 1. When the Quantities have like Signs, and no Coëfficients, set or join them together, and prefix the Sign — before them; and that will be their Product.

		Exam. 1.	Peram. 2.	$\begin{bmatrix} Exam. 3. \\ a+b \end{bmatrix}$	Exam. 4.
Thus {	I 2	<i>a b -</i>	$\frac{a}{b}$	a+b	-a-b $-d$
Y × 2	3	ab	+ ab	ad + bd	+ad+bd

Case 2. If there be Coëfficients; multiply them, and to their Product adjoin the Quantities set together as before.

Thus

Case 3. When the Quantities have unlike Signs; join them and the Product of the Coëfficients together (as before), but prefix the Sign — before them;

That is, + into +, or - into -, gives + in the Product.

But + into -, or - into +, gives - in the Product.

That + into + will produce + in the Product, is evident from Multiplication in Common Arithmetick: viz. + 5 into + 7 will give + 35 &c. But that + into -, or - into + should produce the Sign -, as in the four last Examples; and that - into - should produce the Sign +, as in the second, fourth, and fixth Examples, may perhaps seem somewhat hard to be conceived; and requires a Demonstration.

First to prove that -7b into +3f = -21bf. As in Example 11.

Suppose | 1 |
$$4a - 7b = 0$$

Then will | 2 | $4a = 7b$ | per Axiom 1.
But | 3 | $+3f = +3f$
 2×3 | 4 | $12af = 21bf$ | per Axiom 3.
 $4-21bf$ | 5 | $12af - 21bf = 0$ | per Axiom 2.

Consequently -- into --, or -- into +- produces --, which was the Thing to be proved.

Secondly to prove that — 7b into — 3f gives + 21bf as in Example 12.

Let
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4a - 7b = 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 as before.

Then $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4a = 7b \end{bmatrix}$ as before.

But $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -3f = -3f \end{bmatrix}$

the 2×3 is $\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -12af = -21bf \end{bmatrix}$ by what is proved above.

 $\begin{bmatrix} 421bf \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} -12af + 21bf = 0 \end{bmatrix}$ per Axiom 1.

Consequently — into — gives —, which was to be proved.

Or these may be otherwise proved by Numbers.

Thus, suppose
$$\begin{cases} a=20 \\ b=14 \end{cases}$$
 and $\begin{cases} c=12 \\ d=8 \end{cases}$ or any other Numbers.
Then $a-b=6$ $c-d=4$ per Axiom 2.

Confequently, $a-b \times c-d=6 \times 4=24$, per Axiom 3. but $a-b \times c-d$, according to the precedent Rules, will be, ac-cb+bd-da, which, if true, must be equal to 24.

Proof
$$\begin{cases} ac = 20 \times 12 = 240 & cb = 12 \times 14 = 168 \\ bd = 14 \times 8 = 112 & da = 8 \times 20 = 160 \end{cases}$$
Hence
$$ac + bd = 352 & per Axiom 1.$$
And
$$cb + da = 328 \text{ which being fubftracted,}$$
Leaves
$$ac + bd - cb - da = 352 - 328 = 24, \text{ which plainly fhews,}$$

Note, If the Multiplier confifts of several Terms, then every one of those Terms must be multiplied into all the Terms of the Multiplicand; and the Sum of those particular Products, will be the Product required, as in Common Arithmetick.

EXAMPLES.

$$\begin{vmatrix}
1 & a+b-d & 7b+5d \\
3a-b & 3a-5f \\
1 \times a & 3 & aa+ba-da & 21ba+15da \\
-ba-bb+db & -35bf-25df \\
3+4 & 5 & aa-da-bb+db & 21ba+15da-35bf-25df \\
| 1 & aa-ba & 2 & c-2d & 3a-4b \\
1 \times 2 & 3 & aaa-abb & 6ca-9da-8bc+12db \\
| 1 & aa+2a+4 & aa-ba+bb & a+ba-bba+bbb \\
1 \times 2 & 3 & aaa-8 & aaa-bbb & aaa+bbb
\end{vmatrix}$$

Sect. 4. Division of whole Quantities.

Division of Species, is the converse or direct contrary to that of Multiplication, and consequently is performed by converse Operations (as in common Arithmetick), and admits of four Cases.

Case 1. When the Quantities in the Dividend, have like Signs to those in the Divisor, and no Co efficients in either; cast off or expunge all the Quantities in the Dividend, that are like those in the Divisor; and set down the other Quantities with the Sign — for the Quotient required.

Thus
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c|c|c} \mathbf{I} & ab & -ab & ad+bd & -ad-bd \\ 2 & b & -b & d & -d \\ \mathbf{I} \div 2 & 3 & a & +a & a+b & a+b \end{array} \right.$$

Case 2. When the Quantities in the Dividend have unlike Signs to those in the Divisor; then set down the Quotient Quantities found as before, with the Sign — before them.

Thus
$$\left\{ \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ 2 \\ -b \end{vmatrix} + ab \begin{vmatrix} -ab-bd \\ +b \end{vmatrix} - bcd + bcd + bcf \\ -bc \\ -a-d-f \right\}$$

Case 3. If the Quantities in the Dividend and Divisor, have Co-efficients; divide the Numbers (as in common Arithmetick) and to their Quotients adjoin the Quotient Quantities.

Thus
$$\begin{cases} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ 2 \end{vmatrix} & 3b \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 42 & db \\ -7 & b \end{vmatrix} & 3f \\ 1 \div 2 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 5a & a \\ 3 & -7b \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 6d & 4a - 7b \end{vmatrix}$$

Note, When the Quantities and Co-ëfficients in the Divisor and Dividend are all the same, the Quotient will be an Unit, or 1.

Thus
$$\begin{cases} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ 2 \end{vmatrix} & ab \end{vmatrix} = \frac{9bc}{-9bc} = \frac{7ab + 5bc}{7ab + 5bc} = \frac{8ab + 4d}{-8ab - 4d} \\ \mathbf{I} \div \mathbf{2} = \frac{3}{3} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{I}$$

Case 4. When the Quantities in the Divisor cannot be exactly found in the Dividend; then set them both down like a Vulgar Fraction, as in common Arithmetick.

X

Thus

Thus {	1 2	a b	6 b c 3 d	5 b + a a 5 d + 7 b	8 a d c 4 a b c
I ÷ 2	3	$\frac{a}{b}$	2 b c	5b + aa	2 d

N. B. In Division one thing must be very carefully observed; viz. that like Signs give — and unlike Signs give — in the Quotient; which needs no other Proof than that already laid down in the last Section, if duly compared with what hath been said concerning Multiplication and Division, in Vulgar Arithmetick.

Examples of Division at large.

Or Division of Quantities may stand as Numbers in common Arithmetick do; thus

$$\begin{array}{r}
 3a - 6) 6aaaa - 96 & (2aaa + 4aa + 8a + 16 \\
 \underline{6aaaa - 12aaa} \\
 \hline
 0 + 12aaa - 96 \\
 + 12aaa - 24aa \\
 \hline
 0 + 24aa - 96 \\
 + 24aa - 48a \\
 \hline
 0 + 48a - 96 \\
 + 48a - 96
 \end{array}$$

That is, $6aaa - 96 \div 3a - 6$ gives 2aaa + 4aa + 8a + 16 for the Quotient, as may easily be proved by Multiplication, viz. $2aaa + 4aa + 8a + 16 \times 3a - 6$ will produce $6a^4 - 96$; and so for the rest.

Sect. 5. Involution of whole Quantities.

Involution is the raiting or producing of Powers, from any proposed Root, and is performed in all respects like Multiplication, save only in this; Multiplication admits of any different Factors, but Involution still retains the same.

EXAMPLES.

EXAMPLES.

	_	a	— a	the Root, or fingle Power.
I @, 2	2	aa	+ a a	Square, or second Power.
1 @ 3	3	aaa	-aaa	Cube, or third Power.
1 6.4	4	aaaa	+ aaaa	Biquadrat, or fourth Power.
I @ 5	5	aaaaa	-aaaaa	Surfolid, or fifth Power, &c.

Note, The Figures placed in the Margin, after the Sign (3) of Involution, shew to what Height the Root is involved; and are called Indices of the Power; and are usually placed over the involved Quantities, in order to contract the Work, especially when the Powers are any thing high.

Thus
$$\begin{cases} a = a \\ a^2 = aa \\ a^3 = aaa \\ a^4 = a - aaa \end{cases}$$
 And
$$\begin{cases} a^5 = aaaaaa \\ a^6 = aaaaaaa \\ a^5 b^5 = aaaaaabbbbb \\ a^3 b^3 d^3 = aaabbbddd \end{cases}$$

If the Quantities have Co-efficients, the Co-efficients must be involved along with the Quantities, as in these,

Thus	I	2 a	-3 a	5 b c
1 @ 2	2	4 a a	+9aa	25 bbcc
1 @ 3	3	8 a a a	- 27 a a a	125 bbbccc
I 6.4	4	16aaaa	+810000	625 b+ c+
1 @ 5	5	32 a a a a a	$-243a^{5}$	3125 hs cs &c.

Involution of Compound Quantities is performed in the same manner, due regard being had to their Signs and Co-efficients, if there be any. As for instance, suppose a + b were given to be involved to the fifth Power.

Thus 1
$$a + b$$
 called a Binomial Root
$$a + b$$

$$1 \times a = 2$$

$$1 \times b = 3$$

$$1 \otimes 2$$

$$4 = aa + 2ab + bb$$
, the Square of $a + b$

$$a + b$$

$$4 \times a = 5$$

$$4 \times b = 6$$

$$4 \times b =$$

Again, Let a - b, called a Refidual Root, be given.

Then I
$$a - b$$

 $a - b$
I $\times a$ 2 $aa - ab$
I $\otimes a$ 3 $-ab + bb$
I $\otimes a$ 4 $aa - 2ab + bb$ the Square of $a - b$
 $a - b$
4 $\times a$ 5 $aaa - 2aab + abb$
 $a - b$
4 $\times a$ 5 $aaa - 2aab + abb$
 $aab + 2abb - bbb$, the Cube of $a - b$
I $\otimes a$ 8 $aaaa - 3aaab + 3aabb - abbb$
 $a - b$
7 $\times a$ 8 $aaaa - 3aaab + 3aabb - abbb$
 $a - b$
I $\otimes a$ 10 $aaaa - 4aaab + 6aabb - 4abbb + bbbb$
 $a - b$
10 $\times a$ 11 $a^5 - 4a^4b + 6a^3bb - 4aab^3 + ab^4$
 $a - b$
10 $\times a$ 12 $a^5 - 4a^4b + 6a^3bb - 6aab^3 + 4ab^4$ b^5
I $\otimes a$ 13 $a^5 - 5a^4b + 10a^3bb - 10aab^3 + 5ab^4 - b^5$
&c.

By comparing these two Examples together, you may make the following Observations.

- 1. That the Powers raised from a Residual Root (viz. the Difference of two Quantities) are the same with their like Powers raised from a Binomial Root (or the Sum of two Quantities) save only in their Signs; viz. the Binomial Powers have the Sign + to every Term, but the Residual Powers have the Signs + and interchangeably to every other Term.
- 2. The Indices of the Powers of the leading Quantity (a) continually decrease in Arithmetical Progression; viz. in the Square

it is aa, a: In the Cube aaa, aa, a: In the Biquadrat aaaa, aaa, aa, a, &c.

- 3. The Indices of the other Quantity b do continually increase in Arithmetical Progression; viz. In the Square it is b, bb: In the Cube b, bb, bbb: In the Biquadrat b, bb, bbb, bbb, &c.
- 4. The first and last Terms, are always pure Powers of the single Quantities, and are both of the same Height.
- 5. The Sum of the Indices of any two Letters joined together in the intermediate Terms, are always equal to the Index of the highest Power, viz. of the first or last Term.

These Observations being duly considered, it will be easy to conceive how the Terms of any proposed Power raised from a Binomial or Residual Root must stand, without their Unciæ or Numerical Figures.

For Instance, suppose it were required to raise the Binomial Root a + b to the seventh Power; then the Terms of that Power will stand without their Unciæ in this Order.

Viz.
$$a^7 + a^6 b + a^5 b^2 + a^4 b^3 + a^3 b^4 + a^2 b^5 + a^6 + b^7$$
.

And because the Uncia (not only of any single Letter, but also) of every single Power, how high soever it be, is an Unit or I (which neither multiplies nor divides) and all the Powers of any. Binomial or Residual Root are naturally raised by multiplying of the precedent Power into it's original Root, which is done by only joining each Letter in the Root to the precedent Power, with it's Unciæ, and then removing the said Power, when it is so joined to the second Letter, one place forward (either to the lest or right Hand) it must needs follow,

That the Unciæ of the second Terms (in any such Power) will always be the Sum of so many Units added together more one, as there have been Multiplications of the first Root; which will always be determined by the Index of the first Term in the

Power.

And because the Unciæ of all the intermediate Terms, are only removed along with their Letters, it also follows; that if they are added together, their respective Sums will produce the true Unciæ of the intermediate Terms in the new raised Power. As doth plainly appear from the following Numbers so removed without their Letters; which both shews and demonstrates an easy Way of producing the Unciæ of any ordinary Power (viz. of one not very high) raised from either a Binomial or Residual Root.

=-	Thus
Add	The two Unciæ of the Root.
Add	The Unciæ of the Square.
A 11	The Uncize of the Cube.
Ada	{ 1 . 3 . 3 . 1 The Uncize of the Cube. 1 . 3 . 3 . 1
Add	1.4.6.4.1 The Unciæ of the fourth Power.
Add	{1.5.10.10.5.1 Unciæ of the fifth Power. 1.5.10.10.5.1
	1 . 5 . 10 . 10 . 5 . I
Add	1.6.15.20.15.6.1 Unciæ of the 6th Power. 1.6.15.20.15.6.1
	1 . 7 . 21 . 35 . 35 . 21 . 7 . 1 Unciæ of 7th Pow.

And so on in this manner ad infinitum.

Now if these Numbers are prefixed to the aforesaid Letters, all the Terms will be compleated with their respective Unciæ, and will stand thus;

$$a^7 + 7a^6b + 21a^5b^2 + 35a^4b^3 + 35a^3b^4 + 21a^2b^5 + 7ab^6 + b$$
.

But that the Business of finding these Unciæ, may be rendered yet more easy for Practice, it will be convenient to consider what Series or Progression, the Unciæ of each Term do make from the aforesaid additions.

Uncize of the first Term. Uncize of the second Term.	Unciæ of the	Uncire of the fourth Term. Uncire of the fifth Term.	Uncize of the fixth Term. Uncize of the feventhTerm.	Uncige of the eighth Term, &c.
1 2 2 3 3 4 4 5 6 6 7	3	1 4 I 1 10 5 20 15 35 35		Unciæ of the fingle Quantities Unciæ of the Square. Unciæ of the Cube. Unciæ of the 4th Power. Unciæ of the 5th Power. Unciæ of the 6th Power. Unciæ of the 7th Power, &c.

The Unciæ of the first Term are only a Series of Units, whose Sum is every where the Unciæ of the second Term. The Unciæ of the second Term, are a Series of Numbers in Arithmetick Progression, whose Sum is every where the Unciæ of the next Superior Power in the third Term, and may be found by Proposition

Chap. 2.

tion 1, Chap. 6. Part 1. For Instance, in the seventh Power it will be $\frac{0+1\times 6}{2}=21=$ the Uncia of the third Term.

The rest of the Unciæ are a compounded Series, whose respective Sums may be obtained from the Unciæ of their precedent Terms.

Thus
$$\frac{21 \times 5}{3} = 35$$
. Then $\frac{35 \times 4}{4} = 35$. Again $\frac{35 \times 3}{5} = 21$.

And $\frac{21 \times 2}{6} = 7$ &c.

From hence may be deduced this general Rule.

RULE.

If the Index of the first Letter of any Term be multiplied into it's own Uncia, and that Product be divided by the Number of Terms to that Place; the Quotient will be the Uncia of the next succeeding Term forward.

That is, by the help of those Indices that belong to the several Powers of the first or leading Letter only (as a) the true

Unciæ of every Term may be easily understood.

EXAMPLE 2.

Let it be required to compleat all the Terms of the aforesaid several Powers, viz. $a^7 + a^6 b + a^5 b^2 + a^4 b^3 + a^3 b^4 + a^2 b^5 + a b^6 + b^7$, with their proper Unciæ.

- 1. The Index of a^7 the first Term will be the Uncia of the second Term. Thus $a^7 + 7a^6b$.
- 2. Then half the second Term's Index into it's Uncia, viz. $\frac{7 \times 6}{2} = 21$ will be the third Term's Uncia. Thus $a^7 + 7a^6b + 21a^5b^2$ will be the three first Terms.
- 3. Again $\frac{21 \times 5}{3} = 35$ is the Uncia of the fourth Term, whence $a^7 + 7a^6 b^6 + 21a^5 b^2 + 35a^4 b^3$ will be the four first Terms.
- 4. And $\frac{35 \times 4}{4} = 35$ will be the Uncia of the fifth Term, whence $a^7 + 7a^6 b + 21a^5 b^2 + 35a^4 b^3 + 35a^3 b^4$ will be the five first Terms.

And so proceed 'till all the Terms are compleated with their respective Unciæ; which will stand, thus $a^7 + 7a^6 b + 21a^5 b^2 + 35a^4 b^3 + 35a^3 b^4 + 21a^2 b^5 + 7a b^6 + b^7$.

Now here it may be further observed, that the Unciæ do only increase until the Indices of the two Letters become equal, or change Places; and then the rest of the Unciæ will return or decrease in the same order. That is, wherever the Indices of the Letters are alike, there the Unciæ will be alike.

And therefore one needs to find the Unciæ (as before) but to

half the Number of Terms in any Power.

If what hath been said, and the Work of the Example be well understood, I presume it will be found very easy to raise any Power from a Binomial or Residual Root, to what Height you please; without the Trouble of a continued Involution; and without the Help of such a Table of Powers as is proposed by Mr Oughtred in his Key to the Mathematicks, Page 40, and

fince by others.

Now from these Considerations it was, that I proposed this thod of raising Powers in my Compendium of Algebra, Page 57, as wholly New (viz. fo much of it as was there useful) having then (I profess) neither seen the Way of doing it, nor so much as heard of it's being done. But fince the writing of that Tract, I find in Dr Wallis's History of Algebra, Page 219 and 331, that the Learned Sir Isaac Newton had discovered it long before: which the Doctor fets down in this manner.

Let m be the Exponent of the Power.

Then
$$\left\{ 1 \times \frac{m-0}{1} \times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3} \times \frac{m-3}{4} \times \frac{m-4}{5} \right\}$$

Will be the Series of the Unciæ required; but he doth not tell us how they first came to be found out, nor have I ever met with the least Hint of it in any Author.

Sect. 6. Evolution of whole Quantities.

FVolution is the extracting of Roots from any given Power. That is, it is the Converse Work to that of Involution, and in fingle Quantities it is easy, if the given Power have such a

Root as is required, which may be thus known.

If the given Power have no Numbers prefixed to it, and it's Index can be divided by the Index of the Root required, the Quotient will be the Index of the Root fought. Thus, if the Cube Root of aaaaaa, viz. a6 were required (the Index of the

Cube is 3) then 3) 6 (2. That is, $a = a^2$ the Root required. And such Operations are usually set down

Thus

Thus	11	a ⁶	1 a b 1	a6 h6 d6
I w²	2	a^3	$a^3 b^3$	a³ b³ d³
I w 3.	3	a	a^2b^2	a2 b2 d2
3 Wi ²	4	a	a b	a b d

Note, The Figures placed in the Margin after the Sign (a) of Evolution, denote the Index of the Root to be extracted.

If the given Powers have Co-ëfficients: (viz. Numbers prefixed to them;) then you must extract their respective Roots, as in Vulgar Arithmetick.

Thus	1	81 a4	1296 a b 8	20736 a+ b+ c+
I w²	2	9 a2	36 a+ b+	144 a2 b2 c2
I wu4	3	3 a	$6 a^2 b^2$	12 a b c
or 2 wu	4	3 a	$6 a^2 b^2$	12 a b c

But if the Root required cannot be truly extracted out of both the Co-efficients and Indices of the given Power; then it is a Surd, and must have the Sign of the Root required prefixed to it.

				216bbb ddd
I w²	2	V as	√ 67 a4	V 210bbbddd
I w ³	13	3 V as	3N 67 a4	6 b d ·

Evolution of compound Quantities or Powers, is a little more troublesome than that of Single Powers; and would require a great many Words to explain the Manner and Reason of forming the feveral Canons, that are commonly used in extracting the Roots of compound Quantities; especially if the Powers be very high, &c. I shall therefore for Brevity's sake omit them, and instead thereof propose an easy Method of discovering the Roots of all compound Powers in general. And in order to that, it will be necessary to premise; that if either the Sum or Difference of feveral Quantities be involved to any Power, there will arise so many fingle Powers of the same height, as there are different Quantities.

As for inflance, if a + b + d be squared, that is, be involved to the second Power, it will be aa + 2ab + 2ad + bb + 2bd + dd, here you have aa, bb, and dd. Again, if a+b+d were cubed, viz. involved to the third Power, then you will have aaa, bbb, ddd, in it, &c.

Y

Whence

Whence it follows that in extracting the Roots of all compound Quantities, there must be considered,

1. How many different Letters (or Quantities) there are in the

given Power.

2. Whether the single Powers of each of those Letters be of an equal Height, and have in them such a single Root as is re-

quired: which if they have, extract it as before.

3. Connect those single Roots together with the Sign +, and involve them to the same Height with the given Power; that being done, compare the new raised Power with the given Power; and if they are alike in all their respective Terms, then you have the Root required; or if they differ only in their Signs, the Root may be easily corrected with the Sign — as occasion requires.

Example 1. Let be required to extract the Square Root of cc+2cb-2cd+bb-2bd+dd. In this Compound Square, there are three distinct Powers, viz. bb, cc, dd, whose single Roots are b, c, d, wherefore I suppose the Root sought to be b+c+d, or rather b+c-d, because in the given Power there is -2cd, and -2bd, therefore I conclude it is -d; then b+c-d, being squared, produces bb+2bc-2bd+cc-2cd+dd, which I find to be the same in all it's Terms with the given Power, although they stand in a different Position; consequently b+c-d is the true Root required.

Example 2. It is required to extract the Square Root of a^+ — $2aabb+b^+$. Here are but two fingle Powers, viz. a^+ and b^+ , whose Square Roots are aa, and bb. And because in the given Power there is — 2aabb, therefore I conclude it must either be aa-bb, or bb-aa. Both which, being involved, will produce $a^+-2aabb+b^+$; consequently the Root sought may either be aa-bb, or bb-aa, according to the Nature or Design of the

Question from whence the given Power was produced.

Example 3. Let it be required to extract the Square Root of 36aaaa + 108aa + 81. Here the two fingle Powers are 36aaaa, and 81, whose Roots are 6aa and 9. And because the Signs are all +, therefore I suppose the Root to be 6aa + 9, the which being involved doth produce $36a^4 + 108aa + 81$;

consequently 6aa + 9 is the true Root required.

Example 4. Suppose it were required to extract the Cube Root of 125aaa + 300aae - 450aa + 250aee - 720ae + 64eee + 540a - 288ee + 432e - 216. In this Example there are three distinct Powers, viz. 125aaa, 64eee, and - 216. And the Cube Root of 125aaa is 5a; of 64eee is 4e; of - 216 is - 6. Wherefore I suppose the Root sought to be 5a + 4e - 6, which being involved to the third Power, does produce the

the same with the given Power; consequently 5a+4e-6 is

the Cube Root required.

Chap. 3.

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But if the new Power, raised from the supposed Root (being involved to it's due Height), should not prove the same with the given Power, viz. if it hath either more or fewer Terms in it, &c. then you may conclude the given Power to be a Surd, which must have it's proper Sign prefixed to it, and cannot be otherwise ex-

pressed, until it come to be envolved in Numbers.

Example 5. Suppose it were required to extract the Cube Root of 27 aaa + 54baa + 8bbb. Here are two distinct and perfect Cubes, viz. 27 aaa, and 8 bbb, whose Cube Roots are 3a and 2b. Wherefore one may suppose the Root sought to be 3a + 2b, which being involved to the third Power, is 27aaa + 54baa + 36bba + 8bb. Now this new raifed Power hath one Term (viz. 36bba) more in it than the given Power hath; but this being a perfect Cube, one may therefore conclude the given Power is not so, viz. it is a Surd, and hath not such a Root as was required, but must be expressed, or set down,

If these Examples be well understood, the Learner will find it very easy by this Method of proceeding to discover the true Root of any given Power whatsoever.

CHAP. III.

Of Algebraick Fractions, or Broken Duantities.

Sect. 1. Motation of Fractional Quantities.

Ractional Quantities are expressed or set down like Vulgar Fractions in common Arithmetick.

Thus
$$\left\{\frac{a}{b}, \frac{2bc}{d}, \frac{5b-4a}{4d+7b}\right\}$$
 Numerators. Denominators.

How they come to be so, see Case 4, in the last Chapter of Division. These Fractional Quantities are managed in all respects ike Yulgar Fractions in Common Arithmetick.

Sect. 2. To alter or change different Fractions into one Denomination, retaining the same Value.

RULE.

MULTIPLY all the Denominators into each other for a new Denominator, and each Numerator into all the Denominators but it's own for new Numerators.

EXAMPLES.

Let it be required to bring $\frac{a}{b}$ and $\frac{d}{c}$ into one Denomination.

First $a \times c$, and $d \times b$, will be the Numerators, and $b \times c$ will be the common Denominator, viz. $\frac{ca}{bc}$ and $\frac{bd}{bc}$ are the two Fractions required: that is, $\frac{ca}{bc} = \frac{a}{b}$, and $\frac{bd}{bc} = \frac{d}{c}$.

Again, let $\frac{b+c}{a+b}$ and $\frac{d-c}{b-d}$ be brought in one Denomination, and they will be $\frac{bb+bc-bd-dc}{ba+bb-da-bd}$, and $\frac{ad-ac+bd-bc}{ba+bb-da-bd}$. &c.

Sect. 3. To hing whole Quantities into Fractions of a given Denomination.

RULE.

MULTIPLY the whole Quantities into the given Denominator for a Numerator, under which subscribe the given Denominator, and you will have the Fraction required.

EXAMPLES.

Let it be required to bring a + b into a Fraction, whose Denominator is d-a. First $a+b \times d-a$ is da+bd-aa-ba?

Then $\frac{da+bd-aa-ba}{d-a}$ is the Fraction required.

Again $b + \frac{a}{d}$ will be $\frac{db+a}{d}$. And $\frac{aa}{d} - a$ will be $\frac{aa-da}{a}$.

Also $a+b+\frac{aa+bb}{a-b}$ will be $\frac{2aa}{a-b}$.

When

When whole Quantities are to be fet down Fraction-wise, fubscribe an Unit for the Denominator. Thus ab is $\frac{ab}{1}$. And aa-bb, is $\frac{aa-bb}{1}$, &c.

Sect. 4. To abbieviate, or reduce Fractional Quantities into their lowest Denomination.

RULE.

DIVIDE both the Numerator and Denominator by their greatest common Divisor, viz. by such Quantities as are found in both; and their Quotients will be the Fraction in it's lowest Term.

Thus
$$\frac{aac}{dc}$$
 is $\frac{aa}{d}$. $\frac{abbb}{abc}$ is $\frac{bb}{c}$. And $a + \frac{bdc}{bc} = a + d$.

In such single Fractions as these, the common Divisors (if there be any) are easily discovered by Inspection only; but in compound Fractions it often proves very troublesome, and must be done either by dividing the Numerator by the Denominator, until nothing remains, when that can be done: or else finding their common Measure, by dividing the Denominator by the Numerator, and the Numerator by the Remainder, and so on, as in Vulgar Fractions. (Sect. 4. Page 51.)

EXAMPLES.

Suppose $\frac{aac - aad}{cd - dd}$ were to be reduced lower.

Then
$$cd-dd$$
) $aac-aad$ $\left(\frac{aa}{d}\right)$ the Fraction required.

In this Example it so happens that the Numerator is divided just off by the Denominator; but in the next it is otherwise, and requires a double Division to find out the common Measure, viz.

Let it be required to reduce $\frac{aaa - abb}{aa + 2ab + bb}$ to it's lowest Terms.

First
$$aa+2ab+bb$$
) $aaa-abb$ (a
$$aaa+2aab+abb$$

$$-2aab-2abb$$
 the Remainder.

Then
$$-2aab-2abb$$
) $aa + 2ab + bb \left(-\frac{1}{2b} - \frac{1}{2a}\right)$

$$ab + bb$$

$$ab + bb$$

Hence

Hence it appears that -2aab-2abb is the common Measure; by which aaa-abb being divided,

Viz.
$$-2aab-2abb$$
) $aaa-abb$ $\left(-\frac{a}{2b}+\frac{1}{2}\right)$

$$-aab-abb$$

$$-aab-abb$$

Then $-\frac{a}{2b} + \frac{1}{2}$ is the new Numerator; and $-\frac{1}{2b} - \frac{1}{2b}$ is the new Denominator. But $-\frac{a}{2b} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{-2a + 2b}{4b} - \frac{1}{2b} = \frac{-2a - 2b}{4ba}$ the Numerator; and $-\frac{1}{2b} - \frac{1}{2a} = \frac{-2a - 2b}{4ba} - \frac{1}{2ba}$ the Denominator. Let both be multiplied with 2ba, and you will have $-\frac{aa + ab}{-a - b}$ the Numerator. Or changing the Signs of all the Quantities, it will be $\frac{aa - ab}{a + b}$ the new Fraction required. That is, $\frac{aa - ab}{a + b} = \frac{aaa - abb}{aa + 2ab + bb}$.

Again, let it be required to reduce $\frac{dd - bb}{ddd - bbb}$.

The common Measure of this Fraction will be the easiest found (as appears from Trials) by dividing the Denominator by the Numerator, &c. Thus,

$$\frac{dd - bb) dd d - bbb (d) + bbd - bbb) dd - bb (d) + bbd - bbb) dd - bb (d) + bd - bb (bbd - b) bbd + bd - bb (bbd - b) bbd - b) bbd - b$$

Hence it appears that bd - bb is the common Measure that will divide both the Numerator and the Denominator.

Consequently
$$bd - bb$$
) $dd - bb$ ($\frac{d}{b} + 1$, is the new Numerators $\frac{dd - db}{db - bb}$

And
$$bd - bb$$
) $ddd - bbb$ ($\frac{dd}{b} + d + b$ the new Denominator.

$$\frac{+ddb - bbb}{ddb - bbd}$$

$$\frac{-bbd - bbb}{bbd - bbb}$$

Let both be multiplied with b, and then you will have $\frac{d+b}{dd+bd+bb}$ the Numerator, d of the Fraction required.

But if after all Means used (as above) there cannot be found one common Measure to both the Numerator and Denominator; then is that Fraction in it's least Terms already.

Note, These Operations will be understood by a Learner after he hath passed thro' Multiplication, and Division of Fractions.

Sect. 5. Addition and Substraction of Fractional Quantities.

THE given Fractions being of one Denomination, or if they are not, make them so, per Sect. 4. Then,

RULE.

Add or substract their Numerators, as Occasion requires, and to their Sum or Difference, subscribe the common Denominator: as in Vulgar Fractions.

Examples in Addition. $\begin{vmatrix}
1 & \frac{bb}{c} & \frac{a+b}{d} & \frac{2a-b}{d+c} \\
2 & \frac{aa}{c} & \frac{2a+c}{d} & \frac{2b-a}{d+c} & \frac{a+b-d}{d+a} \\
2 & \frac{a}{c} & \frac{3a+b+c}{d} & \frac{a+b}{d+c} & \frac{2a}{d+a}
\end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix}
1+2 & 3 & \frac{bb+aa}{c} & \frac{3a+b+c}{d} & \frac{a+b}{d+c} & \frac{2a}{d+a}
\end{vmatrix}$

Examples in Substraction.

Sect. 6. Multiplication of Fractional Quantities.

FIRST prepare mixed Quantities (if there be any) by making them improper Fractions, and whole Quantities by subscribing an Unit under them; as per Sect. 3. Then,

RULE.

Multiply the Numerators together for a new Numerator, and the Denominators together for a new Denominator; as in Vulgar Fractions.

Thus
$$\begin{vmatrix}
a & b & 3a - 2b \\
c & 2d + c \\
d & 4a + 2b \\
\hline
d & & d
\end{vmatrix}$$

$$1 \times 2 \quad 3 \quad \frac{abd}{cf} \quad \frac{12aa - 2ab - 4bb}{2dd + dc}$$

Suppose it were required to multiply $2a + \frac{b}{c} - 25$, with 36 + 4c. These prepared for the Work (per Sect. 3.) will stand

Thus
$$\begin{cases} 1 & 2ac + b - 25c \\ c & 3b + 4c \end{cases}$$

$$2 \times 2 & 3 & \frac{6bac + 3bb - 75bc + 8acc + 4bc - 100cc}{c}$$
or
$$4 & 6ba - 71b + 8ac - 100c + \frac{3bb}{c} \text{ per Sect. 4.}$$

N. B. Any Fraction is multiplied with it's Denominator by casting off, or taking the Denominator away. Thus $\frac{b}{a} \times a$ gives b. For $\frac{b}{a} \times \frac{a}{1} = \frac{b}{1} = b$, &c.

Sect. 7. Divilion of Fractional Quantities.

THE Fractional Quantities being prepared, as directed in the last Section. Then,

RULE.

Multiply the Numerator of the Dividend, into the Denominator of the Divisor, for a new Numerator; and multiply the other two together for a new Denominator; as in Vulgar Fractions.

EXAMPLES.

Let $\frac{abd}{cf}$ be divided by $\frac{ab}{c}$, the Work may stand thus, $\frac{ab}{c}$ $\frac{abd}{cf}$ $\frac{abdc}{abcf} = \frac{d}{f}$ per Sect. 4.

Or thus
$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & abd & a+b & aaa-bbb \\ ab & c-b & aa-ab+bb \\ 2 & \frac{ab}{c} & \frac{c-b}{a} & \frac{aaa-bbb}{c} \\ 3 & \frac{d}{f} & \frac{aa+ba}{dc-db} & \frac{aaac-bbbc}{aaa+bbb} \end{vmatrix}$$

Suppose it were required to divide $aa + \frac{3abb}{a+4b}$ by a+b.

The Work prepared will stand thus,

$$\frac{a+b}{1} \frac{aaa + 4aab + 3abb}{a+4b} \left(\frac{aaa + 4aab + 3abb}{aa + 5ba + 4bb} \right). But$$

$$\frac{aaa + 4aab + 3abb}{aa + 5ba + 4bb} = \frac{aa + 3b}{a + 4b} \text{ (per Sect. 4.)}$$

When Fractions are of one Denomination, cast off the Denominators, and divide the Numerators. Thus, if $\frac{ab^3}{c}$ were to be divided by $\frac{bb}{c}$ it will be bb) ab^3 (ab the Quotient required.

For
$$\frac{bb}{c}$$
 $\frac{ab^3}{c}$ $\left(\frac{ab^3c}{bbc}\right)$. But $\frac{ab^3c}{bbc} = ab$ (per Sect. 4.)

Again, suppose it were required to divide $\frac{a^3 - abb}{c - d}$ by $\frac{aa + 2ab + bb}{c - d}$. Casting off c - d in both, it will be aa + 2ab + bb) aaa - abb $\left(\frac{aa - ba}{a + b}\right)$, &c.

Sect. 8. Involution of Fractional Quantities.

RULE.

INVOLVE the Number into itself for a new Numerator, and the Denominator into itself for a new Denominator; each as often as the Power requires.

Thus
$$\left| \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & \frac{b}{a} & \frac{3bc}{2ad} & \frac{b+d}{a-c} \\ \hline 1 & \bigcirc \end{array} \right|^2 = \frac{bb}{aa} \left| \begin{array}{c|c} 9bbcc & bb+2bd+dd \\ \hline 4aadd & \overline{aa-2ac+cc} \\ \hline 1 & \bigcirc \end{array} \right|^3 = \frac{bbb}{aaa} \left| \begin{array}{c|c} 27bbbccc & \underline{bbb+3bbd+3bdd+ddd} \\ \hline 8aaaddd & \overline{aaa-3aac+3acc-ccc} \\ \hline \end{array} \right|$$

Sect. 9. Cholution of Fractional Quantities.

IF the Numerator and Denominator of the Fraction have each of them such a Root as is required (which very rarely happens) then evolve them; and their respective Roots will be the Numerator and Denominator of the new Fraction required.

Thus
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \frac{9aabb}{4dd} & \frac{aa + 2ab + bb}{aa - 2ab + bb} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & w^{2} & 2 & \frac{3ab}{2d} & \frac{a+b}{a-b} \end{vmatrix}$$
Again
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \frac{27aaabbb}{8ddd} & \frac{aaa + 3aab + 3abb + bbb}{aaa - 3aab + 3abb - bbb} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & w^{3} & 2 & \frac{3ab}{2d} & \frac{a+b}{a-b} \end{vmatrix}$$

Sometimes it so falls out, that the Numerator may have such a Root as is required, when the Denominator hath not; or the Denominator

minator may have fuch a Root, when the Numerator hath not. In those Cases the Operations may be set down

Thus	I	$\frac{aabb}{ddd}$	$\begin{vmatrix} aaa + 4bb - dd \\ \hline aa - 2ab + bb \end{vmatrix}$
ז עט	2	ab √ddd	$\begin{vmatrix} \sqrt{aaa + 4bb - dd} \\ a + b \end{vmatrix}$

But when neither the Numerator, nor the Denominator have just such a Root as is required, prefix the radical Sign of the Root to the Fraction; and then it becomes a Surd, as in the last Step; which brings me to the Business of managing Surds.

CHAP. IV. Of Surd Quantities.

THE whole Doctrine of Surds (as they call it) were it fully handled, would require a very large Explanation (to render it but tolerably intelligible); even enough to fill a Treatife itfelf, if all the various Explanations that may be of Use to make it easy should be inserted; without which it is very intricate and troublesome for a Learner to understand. But now these tedious Reductions of Surds, which were heretofore thought useful to fit Equations for such a Solution, as was then understood, are wholly laid aside as useless: Since the new Methods of resolving all forts of Equations render their Solutions equally easy, although their Powers are never so high. Nay, even since the true Use of Decimal Arithmetick hath been well understood, the Business of Surd Numbers has been managed that Way; as appears by several Instances of that Kind in Dr Wallis's History of Algebra, from Page 23, to 29.

I shall therefore, for Brevity sake, pass over those tedious Reductions, and only shew the young Algebraist how to deal with such Surd Quantities as may arise in the Solution of hard Questions.

Sect. 1. Addition and Substraction of Surd Quantities.

Case 1. WHEN the Surd Quantities are Homogeneal, (viz. are alike) add or substract the rational Part, if they

Sect.

are joined to any, and to their Sum, or Difference, adjoin the irrational or Surd.

Examples in Addition.

Examples in Substraction.

Case 2. When the Surd Quantities are Heterogeneal, (viz. their Indices are unlike) they are only to be added, or substracted by their Signs, viz. + or —. And from thence will arise Surds either Binomial, or Residual.

Examples in Addition.

Examples in Substraction.

. [1]	2	√b c √ba	$b - d \sqrt{aaa + ca}$ $d - 2a \sqrt{bd + dd}$
Y-2	3	Vbc-Vba	$b-d\sqrt{aaa+ca}:-d+2a\sqrt{bd+dd}$

Sect. 2. Multiplication of Surd Quantities.

Case 1. WHEN the Quantities are pure Surds of the same Kind; multiply them together, and to their Product prefix their radical Sign.

			EXAMPL	E S.
	1 2	√ b √ a	$\sqrt{ba+da}$ \sqrt{ca}	$\sqrt{aa-bb}$
I × 2	3	√ ba	Vbcaa + dcaa	Vaaaa-bbbb

Case 2. If Surd Quantities of the same Kind (as before) are joined to rational Quantities, then multiply the rational into the rational; and the Surd into the Surd, and join their Products together.

$$E \times A M P L E S.$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & d\sqrt{bc} & | 5 c d\sqrt{ba} + da \\ 2 & 3b\sqrt{a} & | 3a\sqrt{ca} & | 5\sqrt{a} \\ 3 & 3db\sqrt{bca} & | 15cda\sqrt{bcaa} - dcaa & | 75\sqrt{abd} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$1 \times 2 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 3db\sqrt{bca} & | 15cda\sqrt{bcaa} - dcaa & | 75\sqrt{abd} \end{vmatrix}$$

Sect. 6. Division of Surd Quantities.

Case 1. WHEN the Quantities are pure Surds of the same Kind, and can be divided off, (viz. without leaving a Remainder) divide them, and to their Quotient prefix their radical Sign.

Case 2. If Surd Quantities, of the same Kind, are joined to rational Quantities; then divide the rational by the rational, if it can be, and to their Quotient join the Quotient of the Surd divided by the Surd with it's first radical Sign.

	EA	AMPLES.	
I 2	3 d b V b c a 3 b V a	15cda Vbcaa + dcaa 3a Vca	75 V abd 5 V d
	1./2.	radal ka s da	red ab

Note, If any Square be divided by it's Root, the Quotient will be it's Root.

$$E X A M P L E S.$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & a & bb + 2bc + cc & aaaa - 2bbaa + bbbb \\ 2 & \sqrt{a} & \sqrt{bb + 2bc + cc} & \sqrt{a^4 - 2bbaa + b^4} \\ 3 & \sqrt{a} & \sqrt{bb + 2bc + cc} & \sqrt{a^4 - 2bbaa + b^4} \end{vmatrix}$$

Sect. 4. Involution of Surd Quantities.

Case I. WHEN the Surds are not joined to rational Quantities; they are involved to the same Height as their Index denotes, by only taking away their radical Sign.

Case 2. When the Surds are joined to rational Quantities; involve the rational Quantities to the same Height as the Index of the Surd denotes; then multiply those involved Quantities into the Surd Quantities, after their radical Sign is taken away, as before.

E X A M P L E S. $| I | b \sqrt{a} | 5 d \sqrt{ca} | 3b \sqrt{aa - dd}$ | 2 | bba | 25 ddca | 9bbaa - 9bbdd $| I | a:^{3} \sqrt{bc} | 3d:^{3} \sqrt{aa + bb} | da:^{3} \sqrt{b}$ | 3 | 2 | aaabc | 27 dddaa + 27 dddbb | dddaaab

The Reason of only taking away the radical Sign, as in Case 1. is easily conceived, if you consider that any Root being involved into itself, produces a Square, &c. And from thence the Reason of those Operations performed by the second Case may be thus stated.

Suppose $b \sqrt{a} = x$. Then $\sqrt{=\frac{x}{b}}$ per Axiom 4. and both Sides of the Equation being equally involved, it will be $a = \frac{xx}{bb}$. Then multiplying both Sides of the Equation into bb, it becomes bba = xx per Axiom 3. Which was to be proved.

Again,

Again, Let
$$5 d\sqrt{ca} = x$$
: Then $\sqrt{ca} = x + \frac{x}{5 d}$, and $ca = \frac{x x}{25 dd}$.

Also from hence it will be easy to deduce the Reason of multiplying Surd Quantities, according to both the Cases. For

Suppose
$$\left\{\begin{array}{c|c} I & \sqrt{b} = z \\ 2 & \sqrt{a} = x \end{array}\right\}$$
 Example 1. Case 1.
 $\left\{\begin{array}{c|c} I & \bigcirc^2 \\ 2 & 0 \end{array}\right\}$ $\left\{\begin{array}{c|c} b = zz \\ a = xz \\ 3 \times 4 \\ 5 & \omega^2 \end{array}\right\}$ $\left\{\begin{array}{c|c} b = zz \\ a = xx \\ ba = zzxx. \end{array}\right\}$ per Axiom 2.
 $\left\{\begin{array}{c|c} b & zz \\ b & zzx \\ b & zzx \\ c & 0 \end{array}\right\}$ which was to be proved.

Let
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & d \checkmark bc = z \\ 3b \checkmark a = x \end{array} \right\}$$
 Example 1. Case 2.
 $1 \div d$ 3 $\checkmark bc = \frac{z}{d}$
 $2 \div 3b$ 4 $\checkmark a = \frac{x}{3b}$
 4×3 5 $\checkmark abc = \frac{zx}{3bd}$, from what is proved above.
 $5 \times 3bd$ 6 3bd $\checkmark bca = zx$, &c. for the rest.

Division being the Converse to Multiplication, needs no other Proof.

CHAP. V.

Concerning the Nature of Equations and how to prepare them for a Solution.

WHEN any Problem or Question is proposed to be analytically resolved; it is very requisite that the true Design or Meaning thereof, be fully and clearly comprehended (in all it's Parts) that so it may be truly abstracted from such ambiguous Words as Questions of this Kind are often disguised with; otherwise it will be very difficult, if not impossible, to state the Question right in it's substituted Letters, and ever to bring it to an Equation by such various Methods of ordering those Letters as the Nature of the Questions may require.

Now the Knowledge of this difficult Part of the Work is only to be obtained by Practice, and a careful minding the Solution of such leading Questions as are in themselves very easy. And for that Reason I have inserted a Collection of several Questions; wherein there is great Variety.

Having got so clear an Understanding of the Question proposed, as to place down all the Quantities concerned in their due Order, viz. all the substituted Letters, in such Order as their Nature requires; the next thing must be to consider whether it be limited or not. That is, whether it admits of more Answers than one. And to discover that, observe the two following Rules.

RULE I.

When the Number of the Quantities sought exceed the Number of the given Equations, the Question is capable of innumerable Answers.

EXAMPLE.

Suppose a Question were proposed thus; there are three such Numbers, that if the first be added to the second, their Sum will be 22. And if the second be added to the third, their Sum will be 46. What are those Numbers?

Let the three Numbers be represented by three Letters, thus call the first a, the second e, and the third y.

Then
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a+e=22\\ e+y=46 \end{array} \right\}$$
 according to the Question.

Here the Number of Quantities fought are three, a, e, y, and the Number of the given Equations are but two. Therefore this Question is not limited, but admits of various Answers; because for any one of those three Letters you may take any Number at Pleasure, that is less than 22. Which with a little Consideration will be very easy to conceive.

RULE 2.

When the Number of the given Equations (not depending upon one another) are just as many as the Number of the Quantities sought; then is the Question truly limited, viz. each Quantity sought bath but one single Value.

As for Instance, let the aforesaid Question be proposed thus. There are three Numbers (a, e, and y, as before); if the first be added to the second, their Sum will be 22; if the second be added

to the third, their Sum will be 46; and if the first be added to the third, their Sum will be 36. What are the Numbers? That is, a+e=22. e+y=46. and a+y=36. Now the Question is perfectly limited, each fingle Quantity having but one fingle Value, to wit a=6, e=16, and y=30.

N. B. If the Number of the given Equations exceeds the Number of the Quantities fought; they not only limit the Question, but oftentimes render it impossible, by being proposed in-

confistent one to another.

Having truly stated the Question in it's substituted Letters, and found it limited to one Answer (or at least so bounded as to have a certain determinate Number of Answers), then let all those substituted Letters be so ordered or compared together, either by adding, substracting, multiplying, or dividing them, &c. according as the Nature of the Question requires, until all the unknown Quantities except one, are cast off or vanished; but therein great Care must be taken to keep them to an exact Equality; and when that unknown Quantity, or some Power of it (as Square, Cube, &c.) is sound equal to those that are known; then the Question is said to be brought to an Equation, and consequently to a Solution, viz. fitted for an Answer.

But no particular Rules can be prescribed for the casting off, or getting away Quantities out of an Equation; that Part of the Art is only to be obtained by Care and Practice. And when that is done, it generally happens so, that the unknown Quantity which is retained in the Equation, is so mixed and entangled with those that are known, that it often requires some Trouble and Skill to bring it (or it's Powers, &c.) to one Side of the Equation, and those that are known to the other side; (still keeping them to a just Equality) which the ingenious Mr Scooten in his Principia Mathesess Universalis, calls Reduction of Equa-

tions.

The Business of reducing Equations (as of most, if not all Algebraick Operations) is grounded and depends upon a right Application of the five Axioms proposed in Page 146, and therefore, if those Axioms be well understood, the Reason of such Operations must needs appear very plain, and the Work be easily performed; as in the following Sections.

Sect. 1. Of Reduction by Addition.

REDUCTION by Addition is grounded upon Axiom 1. and is only the transposing (viz. the removing) of any Negative Quantity from either Side of an Equation to the other Side, with the Sign + before it; as in these

EXAMPLES.

Suppose | I |
$$a-b=d$$
 | Again,
Then | 2 | $a=d+b$ | Let | I | $aa-d=c-aa$
For | 3 | $b=d$ | $I+d$ | 2 | $aa=c-aa+d$
 $I+3$ | 4 | $a=d+b$ | 2 + aa | 3 | 2 $aa=c+d$

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3a - 4 = 6 - a \\ 1 + 4 & 2 & 3a = 6 + 4 - a \\ 2 + a & 3 & 4a = 6 + 4 = 10 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{cases} Note, & \text{When any absolute Number is registered in the Margin, you must draw a Line over it, to distinguish it from the other Numbers. As $\overline{4}$ in the 2d Step of this Example.$$

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & aa - dc - b = dd - 2ba \\ 1+b & 2 & aa - dc = dd - 2ba + b \\ 2+dc & 3 & aa = dd - 2ba + b + dc \\ 3+2ba & 4 & aa + 2ba = dd + b + dc \end{vmatrix}$$

Suppose | 1 |
$$2da - d = cc - 3baa - aaa$$

1 + aaa | 2 | $aaa + 2da - d = cc - 3baa$
2 + $3baa$ | 3 | $aaa + 3baa + 2da - d = cc$
3 + d | 4 | $aaa + 3baa + 2da = cc + d$, &c.

Sect. 2. Of Reduction by Substraction.

REDUCTION by Substraction is grounded upon Axiom 2, and is performed by transposing (or removing) any Affirmative Quantity from either Side of the Equation, to the other Side, with the Sign — before it; as in these

EXAMPLES.

Suppose | I |
$$a + b - d$$
 | Let | I | $3a + 4 = 6 + a$
And | 2 | $b = b$ | $1 - a$ | 2 | $2a + 4 = 6$
I - 2 | 3 | $a = d - b$ | $2 - 4$ | 3 | $2a = 6 - 4 = 2$

Suppose | I |
$$aa + dc + b = dd + 2ba$$

I - 2ba | 2 | $aa - 2ba + dc + b = dd$
2 - dc | 3 | $aa - 2ba + b = dd - dc$
3 - b | 4 | $aa - 2ba = dd - dc - b$

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & aaa + d = cc + 3baa + 2da \\ 1 - 3baa & 2 & aaa - 3baa + d = cc + 2da \\ 2 - 2da & 3 & aaa - 3baa - 2da + d = cc \\ 3 - d & 4 & aaa - 3baa - 2da = cc - d \end{vmatrix}$$

Sect. 3. Of Reduction by Multiplication.

FRACTIONAL Quantities, in any Equation, are brought into whole Quantities by multiplying every Term in the Equation with the Denominators of the Fractions, per Axiom 3; as in these

EXAMPLES.

Sect. 4. Of Reduction by Division.

WHEN any Quantity (either known or unknown) is in every Term of an Equation, if the whole Equation be divided by that Quantity, it will be reduced into lower Terms, per Axiom 4, as in these following Examples.

Aa2

EXAMPLES,

EXAMPLES.

Suppose
$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & baa + bca = bcd \\ \mathbf{I} \div b & 2 & aa + ca = cd \end{vmatrix}$$
 Let $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & aa = 7a \\ \mathbf{I} \div b & 2 & a=7 \end{vmatrix}$

Let $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & ffaa + ffcaa - ffa = ffda + ffdda \\ \mathbf{I} \div ff & 2 & aa + caa - a = da + dda \\ 2 \div a & 3 & a + ca - \mathbf{I} = d + dd \end{vmatrix}$

Or when the unknown Quantity is multiplied (viz. joined) with any that is known; let the whole Equation be divided by the known Quantity, that so the unknown may be cleared; as in these

EXAMPLES.

Suppose
$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & ba-ca=d \\ \mathbf{I} \div \overline{b-c} & 2 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{d}{b-c} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{Let} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{caa-daa=cd-dd}{2aa=\frac{cd-dd}{c-d}=d}.$$

Suppose | I |
$$bbaaa - 2bbaa = bda + cba$$

I ÷ ba | 2 | $baa - 2ba = d + c$
2 ÷ b | 3 | $aa - 2a = \frac{d+c}{b}$

Let | I |
$$49 \, da \, a + 42 \, aa = 7b \, ca + 2I \, ca$$

I $\div 7$ | 2 | $7 \, da \, a + 6a \, a = b \, ca + 3c \, a$
2 $\div a$ | 3 | $7 \, da + 6a = bc + 3c$
3 $\div a$ | 4 | $a = \frac{bc + 3c}{7d + 6}$

Sect. 5. Of Reduction by Involution.

WHEN there happens to be an Equation, between any homogeneal or like Surds, take away the radical Signs from the Quantities, and they will become rational; as in these

EXAMPLES.

Suppose
$$|I| \sqrt{a} = \sqrt{d+c} |\text{Let } |I|^3 \sqrt{aa} = \sqrt[3]{db+bc}$$
 per Sect. 4.
 $|I| \oplus^2 |2| a = d+c |I| \oplus^3 |2| aa = db+bc$ Chap 3.

Or if one Side of the Equation consists of Surd Quantities, and the other Side be rational, then involve the rational Quantities to the

the same Power (or Height) with the Index of the Surd, and take away the radical Sign; as in these

EXAMPLES.

Let | I |
$$\sqrt{a} = 6$$
 | Suppose | I | $\sqrt{a} = b + c$
 $| C^2 | 2 | a = 36$ | $| C^2 | 2 | a = bb + 2bc + cc$
Suppose | I | $| \sqrt[3]{aa} - ba = d$ | Let | I | $| \sqrt[5]{aa} = 7$
 $| C^3 | 2 | aa - ba = ddd$ | $| C^5 | 2 | aa = 16807$.

Sect. 6. Of Reduction by Evolution.

WHEN any fingle Power of the unknown Quantity is on one Side of an Equation; evolve both Sides of the Equation, according as the Index of that Power denotes, and their Roots will be equal; as in these

EXAMPLES.

Suppose | I |
$$aa = 36$$
 | Let | I | $aaa = 27$ | $a = \sqrt{36} = 6$ | I | $aaa = 27$ | $a = \sqrt{36} = 6$ | I | $aaa = \sqrt{27} = 3$, &c. Suppose | I | $aa = bb - dd$ | Let | $aaa = b^3 + 3bbc + 3bcc + c^3$ | I | $aaa = bb - dd$ | I | $aaa = b^3 + 3bbc + 3bcc + c^3$ | I | $aaa = b + c$

Or if any compound Power of the unknown Quantity be on one Side of the Equation (that hath a true Root of it's kind) evolve both Sides of the Equation, and it will be depressed into lower Terms; as in these

EXAMPLES.

Suppose
$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{a}a + 2ba + bb = dd \end{vmatrix}$$
 $\begin{vmatrix} aa - 2ba + bb = ddcc \\ a - b = dc \end{vmatrix}$

Here follow a few Examples of clearing Equations, wherein all the foregoing Reductions are promiscuously used, as Occasion requires.

EXAMPLE I.

EXAMPLE 2.

Suppose I
$$\frac{a+354}{a} = \frac{3a}{354-a}$$
 what is the Value of a?
I x a 2 $a+354 = \frac{3aa}{354-a}$
2 x $353-a$ 3 I25316 — $aa = 3aa$
2 + aa 4 | $4aa = 125316$
4 ÷ 4 | 5 | $aa = 31329$
5 ω^2 6 | $a = \sqrt{31329} = 177$, the Value of a required.

EXAMPLE 3.

Suppose I
$$\sqrt{\frac{aa + 3bb}{4}} - \sqrt{\frac{aa - 3bb}{4}} = \sqrt{\frac{baa}{c}} : a = ?$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{aa + 3bb}{4}} - 2\sqrt{\frac{aa + 3bb}{4}} \times \sqrt{\frac{aa - 3bb}{4}}$$

$$+ \frac{aa - 3bb}{4} = \frac{baa}{c}$$
That is $\sqrt{\frac{aa - 3bb}{4}} = \frac{baa}{c}$
For $\sqrt{\frac{aa + 3bb}{4}} + \frac{aa - 3bb}{4} = \frac{2aa}{c} = \frac{aa}{2}$
And $\sqrt{\frac{aa + 3bb}{4}} = \sqrt{\frac{4aa + 12bb}{4}} = \sqrt{aa + 3bb}$
Then $\sqrt{aa + 3bb} \times \sqrt{\frac{aa - 3bb}{4}} = \sqrt{\frac{a^4 - 9b^4}{4}}$

$$\sqrt{aa + 3bb} \times \sqrt{\frac{aa - 3bb}{4}} = \sqrt{\frac{a^4 - 9b^4}{4}}$$

$$\sqrt{aa + 3bb} \times \sqrt{\frac{aa - 3bb}{4}} = \sqrt{\frac{a^4 - 9b^4}{4}}$$

$$\sqrt{aa + 3bb} \times \sqrt{\frac{aa - 3bb}{4}} = \sqrt{\frac{a^4 - 9b^4}{4}}$$

$$4 - \frac{baa}{c} = 5$$

$$5 \otimes^{2} = 6$$

$$\frac{a^{4}}{4} - \frac{ba^{4}}{c} + \frac{bba^{4}}{cc} = \frac{a^{4} - 9b^{4}}{4}$$

$$6 + \frac{ba^{4}}{c} = 7$$

$$7 + 8$$

$$\frac{bba^{4}}{cc} + \frac{9b^{4}}{4} = \frac{ba^{4}}{c}$$

$$8 \div b = 9$$

$$\frac{ba^{4}}{cc} + \frac{9b^{3}}{4} = \frac{a^{4}}{c}$$

$$9 \times cc = 10$$

$$ba^{4} + \frac{9ccb^{3}}{4} = ca^{4}$$

$$10 \times 4 = 11$$

$$11 - 4ba^{4} = 12$$

$$9 \times cb^{3} = 4ca^{4} - 4ba^{4}$$

$$12 \div 13$$

$$aaaa = \frac{9ccb^{3}}{4c - 4b}$$

$$13 \times a^{2} = 14$$

$$aa = \sqrt{\frac{9ccb^{3}}{4c - 4b}}$$

$$14 \times a^{2} = 15$$

$$a = \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{9ccb^{3}}{4c - 4b}}$$

$$a = \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2$$

By Help of these Reductions (properly applied) the unknown Quantity (a) or it's Powers, are cleared and brought to one Side of an Equation; and if the unknown Quantity (a) chance to be equal to those that are known, the Question is answered: as in the first Example of Sect. 1, and 2. Or if any single Power of the unknown Quantity (a) is found equal to those that are known, then the respective Root of the known Quantities is the Answer; as in the first four Examples of Sect. 6, &c.

But when the Powers of the unknown Quantities are either mixed with their Root, as aa + ba = dd, &c; or do confift of different Powers, as aaa + baa = dd, &c: Then they are called Affected, or Adfected Equations, which require other Methods to resolve them; viz. to find out the Value of (a) as

shall be shewed further on.

CHAP. VI.

Of Proportional Quantities; both Arithmetical, Geometrical, and Pusical.

WHAT hath been said of Numbers in Arithmetical Progression, Chap. 6. Part 1. may be easily applied to any Series of Homogeneal or like Quantities.

Sect. 1. Of Quantities in Arithmetical Progression.

THOSE Quantities are faid to be in the most simple or natural Progression, that begin their Series of increase or decrease with a Cypher:

Thus $\begin{cases} 0:a:2a:3a:4a:5a:6a:&c. \text{ increasing.} \\ 0:-a:-2a:-3a:-4a:-5a:-6a:&c. \text{ decreasing.} \end{cases}$

Or Universally, putting a the first Term in the Progression, and e the common Excess or Difference.

Then $\begin{cases} a:a+e:a+2e:a+3e:a+4e:a+5e:a+6e:&c.\\ a:a-e:a-2e:a-3e:a-4e:a-5e:a-6e:&c. \end{cases}$

In the first of these Series it is evident, that if there be but three Terms; the Sum of the Extreams will be double to the Mean.

As in these, a:2a:0r, a:2a:3a:0r, 2a:3a:4a, &c. viz. 2a:+0=a+a:0r, a+3a=2a+2a, &c.

Also, in the second Series, either increasing or decreasing, it is evident, that if the Terms be a:a+e:a+2e, &c. increasing; then a+a+2e, viz. 2a+2e the Sum of the Extreams, is double to a+e the Mean, or if they be a:a-e:a-2e, &c. decreasing; then a+a-2e:viz. 2a-2e, the Sum of the Extreams, is double to a-e the Mean. And so it will be in any other three of the Terms. Secondly, if there are four Terms; then the Sum of the two Extreams, will be equal to the Sum of the two Means; as in these, a:a+e:a+2e:a+3e, in the Series increasing; here a+a+3e=a+e+a+2e.

Also in these, a:a-e:a-2e:a-3e, in the Series decreasing; here a+a-3e=a-e+a-2e, &c. in any

other four Terms.

' Consequently, If there are never so many Terms in the Series, the Sum of the two Extreams will always be equal to the Sum

of any two Means, that are equally distant from those Extreams. As in these, a:a+e:a+2e:a+3e:a+4e:a+5e:&c. Here a+a+5e=a+e+a+4e=a+2e+a+3e, &c. And if the Number of Terms be odd, the Sum of the two Extreams will be double to the middle Term, &c. as in Corol. 1. Chap. 6. before-mentioned.

CONSECTARY 1.

Whence it follows, (and is very easy to conceive) that if the Sum of the two Extreams be multiplied into the Number of all the Terms in the Series, the Product will be double the Sum of all the Series.

Now for the easter resolving such Questions as depend upon these

Progressional Quantities.

Let $\begin{cases} a = \text{ the first Term, as before.} \\ y = \text{ the last Term.} \\ e = \text{ the common Excess, } &c. \text{ as before.} \\ N = \text{ the Number of all the Terms.} \\ S = \text{ the Sum of all the Series, } &viz. \text{ of all the Terms.} \end{cases}$

Then will $a + y \times N = 2 S$, by the precedent Confectary: that is, Na + Ny = 2 S. Confequently $\frac{Na + Ny}{2} = S$, the Sum of all the Series, be the Terms never fo many. Thirdly, In these Series it is easy to perceive, that the common Difference (e) is so often added to the last Term of the Series; as are the Number of Terms, except the first; that is, the first Term (a) hath no Difference added to it, but the last Term hath so many times (e) added to it, as it is distant from the first.

Consequently, the Difference betwixt the two Extreams, is only the common Difference (e) multiplied into the Number of all the Terms less Unity or 1. That is, $N-1 \times e = y-a$, the Difference betwixt the two Extreams, viz. Ne-e = y-a.

CONSECTARY 2.

Whence it follows, that if the Difference betwixt the two Extreams be divided by the Number of Terms less 1, the Quotient will be the common Difference of the Series.

To wit,
$$\frac{y-a}{N-1}=e$$
.

Now by the Help of these two Consectaries, if any three of the aforesaid five Parts (viz. a. y. e. N. S.) be given; the other two may be easily found.

Thus,
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \frac{Na + Ny}{2} = S \\ 2 \times \overline{N-1} & 3 & \frac{V-a}{2} = e \\ 3 + e & 4 & \frac{V-a}{2} = e \\ 4 \div e & 5 & \frac{V-a+e}{2} = N, \text{ the Number of Terms.} \\ 1 \times 2 & 6 & \frac{Na + Ny}{2} = 2S \\ 6 - Na & 7 & \frac{Ny = 2S - Na}{2S - Na} = y, \text{ the last Term.} \\ 6 - yN & 9 & \frac{2S - Na}{N} = y, \text{ the first Term.} \\ 6 \div \overline{a+y} & 11 & \frac{2S}{a+y} = N, \text{ the Number of Terms.} \\ \frac{2S}{a+y} = N, \text{ the Number of Terms.} \\ \frac{y-a+e}{2S} = \frac{2S}{a+y}, \text{ per Axiom 5.} \\ \frac{yy-aa}{2e} + a + y = 2S \\ 13 \div 2 & 14 & \frac{yy-aa}{2e} + \frac{a+y}{2} = 2S, \text{ the Sum of all the Series.} \\ 14 \times 2e & 15 & yy - aa + ae + ye = 2Se - ae \\ 16 - ye & 17 & yy - aa + ye = 2Se - ae \\ 16 - ye & 17 & 18 & \frac{yy-aa}{2S-a-y} = e, \text{ the common Difference.} \\ 3 + a & 19 & Ne - e + a = y, \text{ the last Term.} \\ 19 + e & 20 & Ne + a = y + e \\ 20 - Ne & 21 & y + e - Ne = a, \text{ the first Term.} \\ \frac{8cc}{2} = \frac{8}{N} + \frac{Ne - e}{2} + \frac{8}{N} + \frac{1}{N} +$$

In like Manner you may proceed to find out any of the five Quantities (a. e. y. N. S.) otherwise, viz. by varying or comparing those Equations one with another, you may produce new Equation

Equations with other Data in them; the which I shall here omit pursuing, and leave them for the Learner's Practice.

Sect. 2. Of Quantities in Geometrical Proportion.

GEOMETRICAL Proportion continued has been already defined in Sect. 2. Chap. 6. Part 1. And what is there said concerning Numbers in ::, may easily be applied to any sort of Homogeneal Quantities that are in ::.

The most natural and simple Series of Geometrical Propor-

tionals, is when it begins with Unity or 1.

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As I. a. aa. aaa. aaaa. aaaa. a⁵. a⁶, &c. in
$$\vdots$$

For I: a:: a: aa:: aa:: aaa:: aaa:: aaaa, &c.
Or a. b. $\frac{bb}{a}$. $\frac{bbb}{aa}$. $\frac{bbbb}{aaa}$. $\frac{b^5}{a^4}$, &c. are Terms in \vdots
For a: b:: b: $\frac{bb}{a}$:: $\frac{bb}{a}$:: $\frac{bbb}{aa}$:: $\frac{bbb}{aa}$:: $\frac{b^4}{a^3}$:: $\frac{b^5}{a^5}$, &c.

That is, when all the middle Terms betwixt the two Extreams are both Consequents and Antecedents, that Series is in Geometrical Proportion continued. Therefore in every Series of Quantities in :: all the Terms except the last are Antecedents; and all the Terms except the first are Consequents. But universally putting a the first Term in the Series, and e the Ratio, viz. the common Multiplier, or Divisor; then it will be

Or
$$a \cdot \frac{a}{e} \cdot \frac{a}{ee} \cdot \frac{a}{eee} \cdot \frac{a}{eee} \cdot \frac{a}{e} \cdot \frac{a}{e}$$
. &c. in \vdots .

Or $a \cdot \frac{a}{e} \cdot \frac{a}{ee} \cdot \frac{a}{eee} \cdot \frac{a}{eee} \cdot \frac{a}{e}$. &c. are in \vdots decreaf.

For $a : ae :: ae : \frac{aaee}{a} = aee$, &c.

And $a : \frac{a}{e} :: \frac{a}{e} : \frac{aa}{aee} = \frac{a}{ee} \cdot \frac{a}{e} :: \frac{a}{ee} : \frac{a}{ee}$, &c.

I. In any of these Series it is evident, that if three Quantities are in ::, the Rectangle of the two Extreams will be equal to the Square of the Mean; as in these, a: ae. aee, here a x aee = ae x ae, = aaee, &c.

Or
$$a \cdot \frac{a}{e} \cdot \frac{a}{ee}$$
; here also $a \times \frac{a}{ee} = \frac{a}{e} \times \frac{a}{e} = \frac{aa}{ee}$, &c.

II. If four Quantities are in : the Rectangle of the Extreams will be equal to the Rectangle of the Means.

As in these, a. ae. aee. aeee; here $a \times ae^3 = ae \times aee$.

Or
$$a \cdot \frac{a}{e} \cdot \frac{a}{ee} \cdot \frac{a}{eee}$$
; here also $a \times \frac{a}{eee} = \frac{a}{e} \times \frac{a}{ee} = \frac{aa}{eee}$, &c.

Consequently, If there are never so many Terms in the Series of :;, the Rectangle of the Extreams will be equal to the Rectangle of any two Means that are equally distant from those Extreams.

As in these, a. ae. aee. aeee. ae⁴. ae⁵ viz. $ae^5 \times a = ae^4 \times ae$. Or $ae^5 \times a = aeee \times aee = aae^5$

III. If never so many Quantities are in : it will be, as any one of the Antecedents is to it's Consequents; so is the Sum of all the Antecedents, to the Sum of all the Consequents.

As in these,
$$\begin{cases} a \cdot ae \cdot aee \cdot aeee \cdot aeee \cdot aeeee \cdot ae^5, &c. \text{ increasing.} \\ a \cdot \frac{a}{e} \cdot \frac{a}{ee} \cdot \frac{a}{eee} \cdot \frac{a}{eee} \cdot \frac{a}{e^5}, &c. \text{ decreasing.} \end{cases}$$
 $a : ae :: a + ae + aee + ae^2 + ae^4 : ae + aee + ae^3 + ae^4 + aes$

Or $a : \frac{a}{e} :: a + \frac{a}{e} + \frac{a}{ee} + \frac{a}{e^2} + \frac{a}{e^2} \cdot \frac{a}{e^2} + \frac{a}{e^4} + \frac{a}{ee} + \frac{a}{e^3} + \frac{a}{e^4} + \frac{a}{e^5} = ae$
 $\times a + ae + aee + aee + ae^3 + ae^4.$

That is, the Rectangle of the Extreams is equal to the Rectangle of the Means; per Second of this Sect.

Note, The Ratio of any Series in : increasing, is found by dividing any of the Consequents by it's Antecedent.

But if the Series be decreasing, then the Ratio is found by dividing any of the Antecedents by it's Consequent.

Thus,
$$\frac{a}{e}$$
) $a\left(e \text{ Or } \frac{a}{ee}\right) \frac{a}{e}\left(e, \&c.\right)$

CONSECTARY.

These Things being premised, such Equations may be deduced from them, as will solve all such Questions as are usually proposed about Quantities in Geometrical Proportion. In order to that,

let
$$\begin{cases} a = \text{ the first Term.} \\ e = \text{ the common Ratio.} \end{cases}$$
 as before.
$$\begin{cases} y = \text{ the last Term.} \\ S = \text{ the Sum of all the Terms.} \end{cases}$$

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Then S - y = the Sum of all the Antecedents.

And S - a = the Sum of all the Confequents.

Analogy. I
$$a: ae: S-y: S-a \text{ per III. of this Sect.}$$
 $1: 2 Sa-aa=aeS-aey$
 $2 \div a 3 S-a=eS-ey$
 $3+ey$
 $4 S + ey - a = eS$
 $4-S S + ey - a = eS$
 $5 \div e-1 S + ey - a = eS$
 $5 \div e-1 S + ey - a = eS$
 $5 \div e-1 S + ey - a = eS$
 $5 \div e-1 S + ey - a = eS$
 $5 \div e-1 S + ey - a = eS$
 $5 \div e-1 S + a = S$
 $5 \div e-1 S + a$

Note, The : fet in the Margin at the second Step, is instead of ergo; and imports that the Rectangle of the two Extreams in the first Step, is equal to the Rectangle of the Means. And so for any other Proportion.

Sect. 3. Of Parmonical Proportion.

HARMONICAL or Musical Proportion is, when of three Quantities (or rather Numbers) the first hath the same Ratio to the third, as the Difference between the first and second, hath to the Difference between the second and third. As in these solutions.

If there are four Terms in Musical Proportion, the first hath the same Ratio to the fourth, as the Difference between the first and second hath to the Difference between the third and sourth.

That is, let a, b, c, d, be the four Terms, &c.

Then I a: d:: b - a: d - c

I: 2 db - da = da - ca

2 - da 3 db = 2da - ca

3 ÷ 2d - c 4
$$\frac{db}{2d - c}$$
 = a

3 ÷ d 5 $\frac{db}{d}$ = a

3 + ca 6 db + ca = 2da

6 - db 7 ca = 2da - db

7 ÷ a 8 $\frac{db}{d}$ = $\frac{dc}{d}$

7 ÷ $\frac{dc}{d}$ = $\frac{dc}{d}$ = $\frac{dc}{d}$

CHAP. VII.

Of Proportion Disjunct, and how to turn Equations into Analogies, &c.

PROPORTION Disjunct, or the Rule of Three in Numbers, is already explained in Chap. 7. Part 1. And what hath been there said, is applicable to all Homogeneous Quantities, viz. of Lines to Lines, &c.

SECT. 1.

IF four Quantities, (viz. either Lines, Superficies, or Solids) be proportional: the Rectangle comprehended under the Extreams, is equal to the Rectangle comprehended under the two Means. (16 Euclid 6.)

For Inflance, Suppose, $a \cdot b \cdot c \cdot d$ to represent the four Homogeneal Quantities in Proportion, viz. a : b :: c : d; then will ad = bc. For suppose b = 2a, then will d = 2c, and it will be a : 2a :: c : 2c. Here the Ratio is 2. But $a \times 2c = 2a \times c$. viz. 2ca = 2ac. Or suppose b = 3a then will d = 3c, and it will be a : 3a :: c : 3c. Here the Ratio is 3. But $a \times 3c = 3a \times c$. viz. 3ca = 3ae. Or universally putting e for the Ratio of the Proportion, viz. making b = ae, then will d = ce, and it will be a : ae :: c : ce. But $a \times ce = ae \times c$, viz. ace = aec. Consequently, ad = bc which was to be proved.

Whence it follows, that if any three of the four proportional Quantities be given, the fourth may be easily found; thus,

Let
$$a:b::c:d$$

 $a:b::c:d$
 $a:d=bc$ as before
 $a:b:c:d$
 $a:b:c:d$
 $a:b:c:d$
 $a:b:c:d$
 $a:b:c:d$
 $a:b:c:d$
 $a:b:c:d$
 $a:b:c:d$
 $a:b:c:d$
 $a:b:c$
 $a:d$
 $a:d$

If four Quantities are Proportionals, they will also be Proportionals in Alternation, Inversion, Composition, Division, Conversion, and Mixtly. Euclid 5. Def. 12, 13, 14, 15, 16.

Part II

```
That is, if [
            a: b:: c: d be in direct Proportion, as before.
   Then
             a:c::b:d, alternate. For ad=bc.
    And
            b:a::d:c, inverted. For ad=bc.
            a+b:b::c+d:d; compounded.
    Also
    4 ..
             da + bd = bc + bd, that is, ad = bc, as before.
      Or
             a + c : c :: b + d : d; alternately compounded.
    6 ...
             ad + cd = bd + cd, that is, ad = bc.
   Again,
             a-b:b::c-d:d, divided.
    8 ...
          9
             ad - bd = bc - bd, that is, ad = bc.
      Or
             a-c:c::b-d:d, divided.
    10 ..
         II
             ad - cd = bc - cd, that is, ad = bc.
         12 \mid a:b+a::c:d+c, converted.
         13 ad +ac=bc+ac, that is, ad=bc.
   Lastly |14|a+b:a-b:c+d:c-d, mixtly.
    14: |15|ac-ad+bc-bd=ac+ad-bc-bd.
    15 + |16| 2bc = 2ad, that is, ad = bc; as at first.
```

Note, What has been here done about whole Quantities in Simple Proportion, may be easily perform'd in Fractional Quantities, and Surds, &c.

For Instance, If $\frac{ab}{c}$: $\frac{d-c}{f}$:: $\frac{d+c}{c}$, and if it be required to find the fourth Term, it will be $\frac{dd-cc}{fc}$ the Rectangle of the Means; which being divided by the first Extream $\frac{ab}{c}$ will become $\frac{ab}{c}$) $\frac{dd-cc}{fc}$ ($\frac{ddc-ccc}{abfc} = \frac{dd-cc}{abf}$ the fourth Term.

Or if $b: \sqrt{bd + bc}: \sqrt{bc + bc}$: to a fourth Term. Then is, $\sqrt{bd + bc} \times \sqrt{bd + bc} = bd + bc$ the Rectangle of the Means; and b) bd + bc (d + c the fourth Term. That is, $b: \sqrt{bd + bc}$: $\sqrt{bd + bc}: d + c$, &c.

Sect. 2. Of Duplicate and Triplicate Proportion.

THE Proportions treated of in the last Section, are to be understood when Lines are compared to Lines, and Superficies to Superficies; or Solids to Solids, viz. when each is compared to that of it's like Kind, which is only called Simple Proportion.

Chap. 7.

But when Lines are compared to Superficies, or Lines are compared to Solids, such Comparisons are distinguished from the former, by the Names of Duplicate, and Triplicate, &c. Proportions; so that Simple, Duplicate, and Triplicate, &c. Proportions are to be understood in a different Sense from Simple, Double, Treble, &c. Proportions, which are only as 1, 2, 3, &c. to 1; but those of Simple, Duplicate, Triplicate, &c. Proportions, are those of a.aa.aaa., &c. to 1. Or if the Simple Proportions be that of a to b, whose Ratio or Exponent is $\frac{a}{b}$ or $\frac{b}{a}$.

Then
$$\frac{a}{b} \times \frac{a}{b} = \frac{aa}{bb}$$
 is the Exponent of the Duplicate.

And $\frac{a}{b} \times \frac{a}{b} \times \frac{a}{b} = \frac{a^3}{b^3}$ is the Exponent of the Triplicate Proportions, &c.

And if there are three, four, or more Quantities in ::, as 1. a. aa. aaa. a⁴. a⁵, &c. (as in the first Series, Sect. 2. of the last Chapter.) Then, that of the first to the third, fourth, and fifth, &c. (viz. 1 to aa. aaa. a⁴. a⁵) is Duplicate, Triplicate, Quadruplicate, &c. of the first to the second (viz. of I to a); and by Inversion, that of the third, fourth, fifth, is Duplicate, Triplicate, &c. of that of the second to the first (a to 1) per Def. 10. Eucl. 5. But the Name of these Proportions will appear more evident, and be easier understood when they are applied to Practice, and illustrated by Geometrical Figures, surther on.

Sect. 3. How to turn Equations into Analogies.

FROM the first Section of this Chapter, it will be easy to conceive how to turn or dissolve Equations into Analogies or Proportions. For if the Rectangle of two (or more) Quantities, be equal to the Rectangle of two (or more) Quantities; then are those four (or more) Quantities Proportional. By the 16 Eucl. 6. That is, if ab = cd, then is a:c::d:b, or c:a::b:d, &c. From whence there arises this general Rule for turning Equations into Analogies.

RULE.

Divide either Side of the given Equation (if it can be done) into two such Parts, or Factors, as being multiplied together will produce that Side again; and make these two Parts the two Extreams. Then divide the other Side of the Equation (if it can be done) in the same Manner as the first was, and let those two Parts or Factors be the two Means.

For Instance, Suppose ab + ad = bd. Then a:b::d:b+d, or b:a::b+d:d, &c. Or taking ad from both Sides of the Equation, and it will be ab = bd - ad; then a:d::b-a:b, or, b:d::b-a:a, &c.

Again, suppose aa + 2ae = 2by + yy. Here a and a + 2e are the two Factors of the first Side in this Equation; for $a + 2e \times a = aa + 2ae$.

Again, y and 2b + y are the two Factors of the other Side; therefore, a: y: 2b + y: a + 2e, or 2b + y: a + 2e :: a: y, &cc.

When one Side of any Equation can be divided into two Factors, as before, and the other Side cannot be so divided, then make the Square Root of that Side either the two Extreams or the two Means. For Instance, Suppose bc + bd = da + g, then $b: \sqrt{da+g}: \sqrt{da+g}: c+d$, or $\sqrt{da+g}: b:: c+d: \sqrt{da+g}$, &c.

CHAP. VIII.

Of Substitution, and the Solution of Quadratick Equations.

Sect. 1. Of Substitution.

WHEN new Quantities not concerned in the first stating of any Question, are put instead of some that are engaged in it. that is called Substitution. For Instance, If instead of $\sqrt{bc-dc}$ you put z, or any other Letter; that is, make $z = \sqrt{bc-dc}$. Or suppose aa+ba-ca+da=dc, instead of b-c+d put s, or any other Letter not engaged with the Question, viz. s=b-c+d, then aa+sa=dc. That is, if c be greater than

than b+d, it is aa-sa=dc; but if b+d be greater than c,

then it is aa + sa = dc.

And this way of substituting or putting of new Quantities inflead of others, may be found very useful upon several Occasions; viz. in Order to make some following Operations in the Question more easy, and perhaps much shorter than they would be without it, as you may observe in some Questions hereaster proposed in this Tract.

And when those Operations, in which the substituted Quantities were assisting or useful, are performed according as the Nature of the Question required, you may then (if there be Occafion) bring the original or first Quantities into the Equation, in the Place (or Places) of those substituted Quantities, which is called Restitution, as you may see further on.

Sect. 2. The Solution of Quadratick Equations.

WHEN the Quantity fought is brought to an Equality with those that are known, and is on one Side of the Equation, in no more than two different Powers whose Indices are double one to another, those Equations are called Quadratick Equations Adfected; and do fall under the Consideration of three Forms or Cases.

Case 1.
$$aa + 2ba = dc$$
.
Case 2. $aa - 2ba = dc$.
Case 3. $2ba - aa = dc$.
And
$$\begin{cases} a^4 + 2ba^2 = dc \\ a^4 - 2ba^2 = dc \end{cases}$$
Case 3. $2ba - aa = dc$.
$$\begin{cases} a^6 + 2ba^3 = dc \\ a^6 - 2ba^3 = dc \end{cases}$$
And
$$\begin{cases} a^8 + 2ba^4 = dc \\ a^8 - 2ba^4 = dc \end{cases}$$
&c.
$$\begin{cases} a^6 - 2ba^3 = dc \\ 2ba^3 - a^6 = dc \end{cases}$$
And
$$\begin{cases} a^8 + 2ba^4 = dc \\ a^8 - 2ba^4 = dc \end{cases}$$

When there happens to be more Terms in one of these Kind of Equations than two, and the highest Power of the unknown Quantity is multiplied into some known Co-efficients; you must reduce them by Division; as in Sect. 4. of Chap. 5. and for the Fractional Quantities that may arise by those Divisions, substitute another Quantity doubled.

for $\frac{dc+cb}{b+c}$ put z. Then will aa-2xa=z be the new Equation, equal to the other, being now fitted for a Solution.

Now any of these three Forms of Equations being thus prepared for a Solution, may be reduced to simple Powers by casting off the second or lowest Term of the unknown Quantity; which is done by Substitution; thus, always take half the known Coefficient, and add it to (Case 1.) or substract it from (Case 2.) it's fellow Factor; and for their Sum, or Difference, Substitute another Letter; as in these.

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & aa + 2ba = dc \end{vmatrix}$$
 Case 1.
Put $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & a+b=e \end{vmatrix}$
 $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & a \end{vmatrix}^2 \begin{vmatrix} 3 & aa + 2ba + bb = ee \end{vmatrix}$
 $\begin{vmatrix} 3-1 & 4 & bb = ee - dc \end{vmatrix}$
 $\begin{vmatrix} 4+dc & 5 & ee = bb + dc \end{vmatrix}$
 $\begin{vmatrix} 5 & ba \end{vmatrix}^2 \begin{vmatrix} 6 & e = \sqrt{bb} + dc \end{vmatrix}$
2 and 6 $\begin{vmatrix} 7 & a+b = \sqrt{bb} + dc \end{vmatrix}$, per Axiom 5.
 $\begin{vmatrix} 7-b & 8 & a = \sqrt{bb} + dc = -b \end{vmatrix}$

Again,

Let I
$$aa - 2ba = dc$$
 Case 2.

Put 2 $a - b = e$

2 © 2 3 $aa - 2ba + bb = ee$

3 - I 4 $bb = ee - dc$

4 + dc 5 $ee = dc + bb$

5 uu^2 6 $e = \sqrt{dc + bb}$

2 and 6 7 $a - b = \sqrt{dc + bb}$

7 + b 8 $a = b + \sqrt{dc + bb}$

In Case 3. From Half the known Co-efficient substract it's fellow Factor.

Thus, Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2ba - aa = dc \\ Put & 2 & b - a = e \\ 2 & 3 & bb - 2ba + aa = ee \\ 1 + 3 & 4 & bb = dc + ee \\ 4 - dc & 5 & ee = bb - dc \end{vmatrix}$$

5
$$uv^2$$
 | 6 | $e = \sqrt{bb - dc}$
2 and 6 | 7 | $b - a = \sqrt{bb - dc}$
7 + a | 8 | $b = a + \sqrt{bb - dc}$
8 - $\sqrt{bb - ac}$

And this Method holds good in those other Equations, wherein the highest Powers are a^4 , a^6 , a^8 , &c. As, for instance,

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & a^6 + 2b^3 = dc \\ Put & 2 & a^3 + b = e \\ 2 \textcircled{2}^2 & 3 & a^6 + 2ba^3 + bb = ee \\ 3 - 1 & 4 & bb = ee - dc \\ 4 + cd & 5 & ee = bb + dc \\ 5 w^2 & 6 & e = \sqrt{bb} + dc \\ 2 \text{ and } 6 & 7 & a^3 + b = \sqrt{bb} + dc \\ 7 - b & 8 & a^3 = \sqrt{bb} + dc : -b \\ 8 w^3 & 9 & a = \sqrt[3]{\sqrt{bb} + ac} : -b$$

The fame may be done with all the rest, Care being taken

to add, or substract, according as the Case requires.

But all Quadratick Equations may be more easily resolved by compleating the Square, which is grounded upon the Consideration of raising a Square from any Binomial, or Residual Root. (See Sect. 5. Chap. 1.) Viz. if a + b be involved to a Square, it will be aa + 2ba + bb; and if a - b be so involved, it will be aa - 2ba + bb. Whence it is easy to observe, that aa + 2ba = dc (Case 1.), and aa - 2ba = dc (Case 2.), are imperfect Squares, wanting only bb to make them compleat. And therefore it is, that it half the known Co-efficient be involved to the second Power, and the Square be added to both Sides of the Equation, the unknown Side will become a compleat Square.

Thus Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ aa + 2ba = dc \\ bb = bb \end{vmatrix}$$
 is b, which being squared, $bb = bb \end{vmatrix}$ is $bb = bb \end{vmatrix}$ Case 1.

3 $\omega^2 \begin{vmatrix} 4 \\ a + b = \sqrt{dc + bb} \end{vmatrix}$ as before

Again.

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & aa - 2ba = dc \\ But \end{vmatrix}$$
 Case 2.
But $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & bb = bb \\ 1+3 & 3 & aa - 2ba + bb = dc + bb \\ 3\omega^2 \end{vmatrix}$ 4 $\begin{vmatrix} a-b = \sqrt{dc+bb}, &c. \\ as before. \end{vmatrix}$

But in Case 3. you must change the Signs of all the Terms in the Equation,

Thus 1 |
$$2ba - aa = dc$$
 Case 3.
1 $+$ 2 | $aa - 2ba = -dc$
Then 3 | $aa - 2ba + bb = bb - dc$, &c.

And this Method of compleating the Square, holds true in those other Equations.

Viz. I
$$aaaa + 2baa = dc$$
 Case 1.
For 2 $bb = bb$, as before.
 $1+2$ 3 $aaaa + 2baa + bb = dc + bb$
 $3w^2$ 4 $aa + b = \sqrt{dc + bb}$
 $4-b$ 5 $aa = \sqrt{ac + bb} = b$
 $5w^2$ 6 $a = \sqrt{\cdot \cdot \sqrt{dc + bb} \cdot -b}$, and so on for the rest.

Or let | 1 |
$$a^6 + 2baaa = dc$$
, as before, Cafe 1.
And | 2 | $bb = bb$
1 + 2 | 3 | $a^6 + 2baaa + bb = dc + bb$
1 uu^2 | 4 | $aaa + b = \sqrt{dc + bb}$
4 - b | 5 | $aaa = \sqrt{dc + bb} : -b$
5 uu^3 | 6 | $a = \sqrt[3]{:\sqrt{dc + bb} : -b}$, &c.

COROLLARY.

Hence it is evident, that what soever Method is used in solving these (or indeed any other) Equations, the Result will still be the same, if the Work be true; as you may observe from the Operations of this Section: for both these Methods here proposed, give the same Theorems in their respective Cases for the Value of (a).

Thus, when aa + 2ba = dc, then Theorem 1. $a = \sqrt{dc + bb} : -b$ And when aa - 2ba = dc, then Theorem 2. $a = b + \sqrt{dc + bb}$ Again, when 2ba - aa = dc, then Theorem 3. $a = b - \sqrt{bb - dc}$

The like Theorems may be easily raised for the rest.

If the known Co-efficients (of the fecond or lowest Term) be any single Quantity, as aa + ba = dc, &c. then is $\frac{1}{2}b$ it's Half, and $\frac{1}{4}bb$ will be the Square of that Half; that is, $\frac{1}{2}b \times \frac{1}{2}b = \frac{1}{4}bb$, and then the Work will stand

Thus | I |
$$aa + ba = dc$$

I $C \square$ | 2 | $aa + ba + \frac{1}{4}bb = dc + \frac{1}{4}bb$
2 ω^2 | 3 | $a + \frac{1}{2}b = \sqrt{dc + \frac{1}{4}bb}$
3 $-\frac{1}{2}b$ | 4 | $a = \sqrt{dc + \frac{1}{4}bb} : -\frac{1}{2}b$, and so for the rest.

Note, $C \square$ placed in the Margin against the second Step, signifies that the impersect Square aa + ba in the first Step, is there compleated, viz. in the second Step.

Now by the help of these Theorems, it will be easy to calculate or find the Value of the unknown Quantity (a) in Numbers.

EXAMPLE 1.

Suppose aa + 2ba = z. Let b = 16, and z = 4644. then $a = \sqrt{z + bb} : -b$ per Theorem 1. But z + bb = 4644 + 256 = 4900, and $\sqrt{4900} = 70$ Consequently a = 70 - 16. viz. a = 54.

But every Adfected Equation, hath as many Roots (or rather Values of the unknown Quantity) either real or imaginary, as are the Dimensions (viz. the Index) of it's highest Power; and therefore the Quantity a, in this Equation, hath another Value either Assirmative or Negative; which may be thus found.

The given Equation is aa + 32a = 4644, and it's Root a = 54. Let these two Equations be made equal or equated to 0, viz. to Nothing.

Thus,

Thus, aa + 32a - 4644 = 0, and a - 54 = 0. Then divide the given Equation by it's first Root, and the Quotient will show the second Value of a.

Hence the fecond Value of a is = -'86, or 86 = - a, which feems impossible, viz. that an Affirmative Quantity should be equal to a Negative Quantity; yet even by this fecond Value of a, and the same Co-efficient, the true (or first) Equation may be formed

Thus, Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & a = -86 \\ & a = +7396 \end{vmatrix}$$
, viz. $-86 \times -86 = +7396$
 $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3^2 \\ & 2 \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2a = -2752 \\ & 2 + 3 \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} 4 & aa + 32a = 4644 \end{vmatrix}$, as at first.

EXAMPLE 2.

Suppose I
$$\begin{vmatrix} aa - 7a = 948,75, \text{ then per Theorem 2.} \\ aa - 7a + \frac{42}{4} = 948,75 + \frac{42}{4} = 961 \\ 2 \underline{\omega^2} \begin{vmatrix} 3 \\ 3 + 3.5 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 4 \\ a = 31 + 3.5 = 34.5 \end{vmatrix}$$

Again, for the fecond Value of a, let aa-7a-948,75=0, and a-34,5=0. Then

$$a-34,5=0$$
) $aa-7a-948,75=0$ ($a+27,5=0$.

Consequently this second Value is a = -27.5 which will form the original Equation, aa - 7a = 948.75 if it be ordered as the last was.

E X A M P L E 3.

Suppose 36a - aa = 243, then per Theorem 3. a = 18 $-\sqrt{324 - 243}$, viz. half 36 squared is 324, &c. that is, $a = 18 - \sqrt{81}$; but $\sqrt{81} = 9$, therefore a = 18 - 9 = 9. Now this third Form is called an ambiguous Equation, because it hath two Affirmative Values of the unknown Quantity (a), both which may be found without such Division as was used before.

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before. For in this Case, $a = 18 + \sqrt{81}$, viz. a = 18 + 9 = 27, or, a = 18 - 9 = 9, as before. And both these Values of a are equally true, as to forming the given Equation; viz. 36a - aa = 243. For if a = 9, then aa = 81, and 36a = 324; but 324 -81 = 243, therefore a = 9.

Again, if a = 27, then will aa = 729, and 36a = 972: But 972 - 729 = 243, consequently it may be, a = 27. Now either of these Values of a may be found by Division, as those were in the other two Cases, one of them being first found by the Theorem. Thus, let 36a - aa - 243 = 0, and 9 - a = 0; then 9 - a = 0) 36a - aa - 243 = 0 (a - 27 = 0) 9a - aa

Hence, if a - 27 = 0, then a = 27, as before.

Notwithstanding all Quadratick Equations of this third Form have two Affirmative Roots (as in this), yet but one of those Roots will give a true Answer to the Question, and that is to be chosen according to the Nature and Limits of the Question, as shall be shewed further on.

SCHOLIUM.

From the Work of the three last Examples, it may be observed; that the Sum of both the Roots will always be equal to the Go-efficient of their respective Equations, with a contrary Sign.

Thus. In Example 1.
$$aa + 32a = 4644$$

Here $a = 54$
And $a = -86$ Add
$$2a = -32$$

$$aa - 7a = 948,75$$
Here $a = 34,5$
And $a = -27,5$
Add
 $2a = +7$

In the last Example
$$36a - aa = 243$$

Which was changed into $aa - 36a = -243$
Here $a = 9$ Add

And
$$a = 27$$
 Add
$$2a = 36$$

Hence it is evident, that if either of the Roots be found, the

other may be easily had without Divisions.

If the Contents of this Section be well understood, it will be easy to give a Numerical Solution to any Quadratick Equation, that happens to arise in resolving of Questions, &c. And as for giving a Geometrical Construction of them, I think it not proper in this Place; because I here suppose the Learner wholly ignorant of the first Principles of Geometry, therefore I shall refer that Work to the next Part.

CHAP. IX.

Of Analysis, or the Method of resolving Problems exemplified by Variety of Numerical Duestions.

N.B. HERE I advise the Learner to make use always of the same Letters, to represent the same Data in all Questions.

Viz. { If a represent any Number } or other Quantity,

Then let
$$\begin{cases}
a + e = s \text{ their Sum.} \\
a - e = d \text{ their Difference.} \\
ae = p \text{ their Product.} \\
a = q \text{ their Quotient.} \\
aa + ee = z \text{ the Sum of their Squares.} \\
aa - ee = x \text{ the Difference of their Squares.}
\end{cases}$$

Any two of these six (s, d, p, q, z, x) being given, thence to find the rest; which admits of sisteen Variations, or Questions.

Question 1. Suppose s and d were given, and it were required by them to find $a \cdot e \cdot p \cdot q \cdot z \cdot$ and $x \cdot$

Let
$$\left\{\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & a+e=s \\ 2 & a-e=d \end{array}\right\}$$
 and suppose $\left\{\begin{array}{c|c} s=240 \\ d=192 \end{array}\right\}$ Then $1+2$ 3 $2a=s+d=432$ $3\div 2$ 4 $a=\frac{s+d}{2}=216$, here a is found. $1-2$ 5 $2e=s-d=48$.

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01	3146	BALLEL LEGEL	Duestion	~

Chap. 9. $5 \div \frac{1}{2} = 6$ $e = \frac{s-d}{2} = 24$, here e is found. 4×6 7 $ae = \frac{33 - dd}{4} = p = 5184$, here p is found. $4 \div 6$ $8 = \frac{s+d}{s} = q = 9$, here q is found. $4 \odot 2 9 aa = \frac{ss + 2sd + dd}{4} = 46656$ $6 \otimes 2 | 10 | ee = \frac{ss - 2sd + dd}{4} = 576$ 9 + 10 | 11 | $aa + ee = \frac{ss + dd}{a} = z = 47232$, z found. 9 - 10 | 12 | aa - ee = sd = x = 46080, x found.

Question 2. Let s and p be given, to find the rest.

That is
$$\begin{cases} 1 \\ 2 \\ ae = p = 5184 \end{cases}$$
 Quære $a.e.d.q.z.x.$

$$1 \textcircled{@}^{2} \\ 3 \\ aa + 2ae + ee = ss = 57600$$

$$2 \times 4 \\ 4 \\ 3 - 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ a - 2ae + ee = ss - 4p = 36864$$

$$5 \textcircled{@}^{2} \\ 6 \\ a - e = \sqrt{ss - 4p} = d = 192$$

$$1 + 6 \\ 7 \\ 2a = s + \sqrt{ss - 4p}$$

$$7 \div 2 \\ 8 \\ a = \frac{s + \sqrt{ss - 4p}}{2}, \text{ hence } a = 216$$

$$1 - 6 \\ 9 \\ 2e = s - \sqrt{ss - 4p}, \text{ hence } e = 24.$$

$$8 \div 10 \\ 11 \\ e = \frac{s + \sqrt{ss - 4p}}{2} = q = 9.$$

$$8 \textcircled{@}^{2} \\ 12 \\ aa = \frac{ss + \sqrt{ss - 4p}}{2} = q = 9.$$

$$10 \textcircled{@}^{2} \\ 13 \\ ee = \frac{ss - s\sqrt{ss - 4p}}{2} = p$$

$$12 + 13 \\ 14 \\ aa + ee = ss - 2p = z = 47232$$

$$12 - 13 \\ 15 \\ aa - ee = s\sqrt{ss - 4p} = x = 46080$$

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Question 3. Suppose s and q are given, to find the rest.

Question 4. Let s and z be given, to find the rest.

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} 1 & a+e=s.=240 \\ 2 & aa+ee=z=47232 \end{cases}$$
 Quære $a.e.d.p.q.x.$
 $3 - 2 + 2ae + ee = ss$
 $3 - 2 + 2ae = ss - z$
 $2 - 4 + 5 + aa - 2ae + ee = 2z - ss$
 $5 uu^2 + 6 + a - e = \sqrt{2z - ss} = d$

The rest are sound just as in the 2d Question; the 8 and 10 Steps here being the very same with the 8 and 10 Steps there.

Question 5. When s and x are given, to find the rest.

Question 6. Suppose d and p are given, to find the rest.

Question 7. Let d and q be given, to find the rest.

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} 1 & a-e = d = 192 \\ 2 & e = q = 9 \end{cases}$$
 Quære $a \cdot e \cdot s \cdot p \cdot z \cdot x \cdot e = qe - e$

$$1 + e = 4 \quad a = d + e$$

$$3 \text{ and } 4 \quad 5 \quad qe = d + e$$

$$5 - e = 6 \quad qe - e = d$$

$$6 \div q - 1 \quad 7 \quad e = \frac{d}{q - 1}, \text{ for } q - 1 \times e = qe - e$$

$$1 + 7 \quad 8 \quad a = d + \frac{d}{q - 1} = \frac{qd}{q - 1}$$

$$7 + 8 \quad 9 \quad a + e = \frac{qd + d}{q - 1} = s$$

$$7 \times 8 | 10 | ae = \frac{qdd}{qq - 2q + 1} = p$$

$$8 \otimes^{2} | 11 | aa = \frac{qqdd}{qq - 2q + 1}$$

$$7 \otimes^{2} | 12 | ee = \frac{dd}{qq - 2q + 1}$$

$$11 + 12 | 13 | aa + ee = \frac{qqdd + dd}{qq - 2q + 1} = z$$

$$11 - 12 | 14 | aa - ee = \frac{qqdd - dd}{qq - 2q + 1} = x$$

Question 8. Suppose d and z given, to find the rest.

Question 9. Let d and x be given, to find the rest.

Question 10. Let p and q be given, to find the rest.

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ ae = p = 5184 \\ 2 \frac{a}{e} = q = 9 \end{cases}$$
 Quære $a \cdot e \cdot d \cdot z \cdot x \cdot e$

$$\mathbf{I} \times 2 \begin{vmatrix} 3 \\ aa = qp, \text{ for } \frac{ae}{1} \times \frac{a}{e} = \frac{aae}{e} = ae$$

$$3 \omega^{2} \begin{vmatrix} 4 \\ a = \sqrt{qp} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{I} \div 2 \begin{vmatrix} 5 \\ ee = \frac{p}{q}, \text{ for } \frac{a}{1} \end{vmatrix} \frac{ae}{1} \left(\frac{aee}{a} = ee \right)$$

$$5 \omega^{2} \begin{vmatrix} 6 \\ e = \sqrt{\frac{p}{q}} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$4 + 6 \begin{vmatrix} 7 \\ a + e = \sqrt{qp} + \sqrt{\frac{p}{q}} = s$$

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4-6 | 8 |
$$a-e = \sqrt{qp} - \sqrt{\frac{p}{q}} = d$$

3+5 | 9 | $aa + ee = qp + \frac{p}{q} = z$

3-5 | 10 | $aa - ee = pq - \frac{p}{q} = x$

Question 11. Let p and z be given, to find the rest.

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} 1 & ae = p = 5184 \\ aa + ee = z = 47232 \end{cases}$$
Quære a.e. &c.
$$1 \times 2 = 3$$

$$2 + 3 = 4$$

$$4 \times 2 = 4 = 2p$$

$$4 \times 2 = 2p$$

$$4$$

Question 12. Let p and x be given, to find the rest.

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{vmatrix} & ae = p = 5184 \\ aa - ee = x = 46080 \end{cases}$$
 Quære a.e. &c. $\frac{8}{4}$

Question 13. Having q and z given, to find the rest.

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} 1 & \frac{a}{e} = q = 9 \\ 2 & aa + ee = z = 472.22 \end{cases}$$
 Quære $a \cdot e$, &c.
$$1 \times e \quad 3 \quad a = qe$$

$$3 \cdot e^{2} \quad 4 \quad aa = qqee$$

$$2 - 4 \quad 5 \quad ee = z - qqee$$

$$4 + qqee \quad 6 \quad qqee + ee = z$$

$$6 \div qq + 1 \quad 7 \quad ee = \frac{z}{qq + 1}, \text{ for } qq + 1 \times ee = qqee + ee$$

Question 14. When q and x are given, to find the rest.

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} 1 & \frac{a}{e} = q = 9 \\ 2 & aa - ee = x = 460\% \end{cases}$$
Quære $a \cdot e \cdot \&c$.

1 x e 3 $a = qe$

3 \(\text{3}^2 \) 4 $aa = qqee$

2 + ee 5 $aa = x + ee$

4 and 5 6 $qqee = x + ee$

6 - ee 7 $qqee - ee = x$

7 \(\frac{qq-1}{qq-1} \) 8 $ee = \frac{x}{qq-1}$

2 + 8 9 $aa = x + \frac{x}{qq-1} = \frac{qqx}{qq-1}$

9 \(\omega^2 \) 10 $a = \sqrt{\frac{qqx}{qq-1}}$

8 \(\omega^2 \) 11 $e = \sqrt{\frac{x}{qq-1}}$

10 + 11 12 $a + e = \sqrt{\frac{qqx}{qq-1}} + \sqrt{\frac{x}{qq-1}} = s$

10 - II | 13 |
$$a - e = \sqrt{\frac{qqx}{qq-1}} - \sqrt{\frac{x}{qq-1}} = d$$

10 x II | 14 | $ae = \sqrt{\frac{qqxx}{qqqq-2qq+1}} = p$
8 + 9 | 15 | $aa + ee = \frac{qqx-x}{qq-1} = z$

Question 15. When z and x are given, to find the rest.

These fifteen Questions are proposed in Dr Pell's Algebra; but he pursues only the first Question throughout, and breaks off in the other source, after the Values of what I call a and e are sound. But I have proceeded in every one of them, to find the Values of all the unknown Qualities, because they afford

afford such Variety, as being well observed by a Learner, will be

found very useful in the Solution of most Questions.

Note, I have chose to use the same Numbers for the respective Value of each Quantity throughout all the Questions, because they will be more satisfactory in proving the Work than various Numbers would have been. Not but that any Numbers may be taken at Pleasure, provided that the Number represented by a, be greater than that by e, &c. I have omitted the Numerical Calculations purely for the Learner to practise on.

Question 16. There are two Numbers, the Sum of their Squares is 2368; and the greater of them is in Proportion to the less, as 6 to 1. What are these Numbers?

Let a = the greater Number, e = the leffer, and z = 2368.

Then And 2
$$a:e::6:1$$
 by the Question.
2:. 3 $a:e::6:1$ by the Question.
2:. 3 $a:e::6:1$ by the Question.
2:. 3 $a:e::6:1$ by the Question.
3 $a:e::6:1$ by the Question.
1 $a:e::6:1$ by the Question.
2 $a:e::6:1$ by the Question.
1 $a:e::6:1$ by the Question.
2 $a:e::6:1$ by the Question.
2 $a:e::6:1$ by the Question.
2 $a:e::6:1$ and $a:e::6:1$

Question 17. There are three Numbers in continued Proportion, the Sum of the Extreams is 156, and the Mean is 72; What are the two Extreams?

That is, Suppose $a \cdot m \cdot e$ in ::, and m = 72.

Then
$$\begin{cases} 1 & a + e = 5156 = s \\ 2 & a : m :: m : e \end{cases}$$
 by the Question.
2:: 3 $ae = mm$
 $1 \otimes^{2} 4$ $aa + 2ae + ee = ss$
 $3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 4$ $4ae + 4mm$

Question 18. There are three Numbers in :, their Sum is 74, and the Sum of their Squares is 1924; What are those Numbers?

That is, a, e, y are in ::

Then
$$\begin{cases} 1 & a+e+y=s=74 \\ aa+ee+yy=z=1924 \end{cases}$$
 Quære a, e, y .
$$3 & a:e::e:y \\ \hline 1-e & 5 & a+y=s-e \\ 2-ee & 6 & aa+yy=z-ee \\ 4\times 2 & 7 & 8 & aa+2ay+yy=z+ee \\ 5& 2& 9 & aa+2ay+yy=ss-2se+ee \end{cases}$$

$$8 & and & 9 & 10 & z+ee=ss-2se+ee \\ 10+& 11 & 2se=ss-z \\ \hline 11+& 2s & 12 & e=\frac{ss-z}{2s}=24 \end{cases}$$

$$5, & 13 & a+y=s-e=50 \\ 13& 2& 4ay+yy=2500 \\ 4\times 4 & 15 & 4ay=4ee=2304 \\ 14-& 15 & 16 & aa-2ay+yy=196 \\ 16& 2& 17 & a-y=\sqrt{196}=14 \\ 13+& 17 & 18 & 2a=50+14=64 \\ 18+& 2& 19 & a=32 \\ 13-& 19 & 20 & y=50-32=18 \end{cases}$$

$$0 & 18 & 2 & 19 & a=32 \\ 13-& 19 & 20 & y=50-32=18 \end{cases}$$

Note, In all Questions about continual Proportionals, (either Arithmetical or Geometrical) where three Terms are sought, the Mean is the easiest sound first (as above) and if all the Terms he Assirmative, then it is equal whether the first or last Term be the greatest.

Question

Question 19. There are three Numbers in : their Sum is 76; and if the Sum of the Extremes be multiplied into the Mean, that Product will be 1248; What are those Numbers?

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} 1 & a:e::e:y \\ a+e+y=s=76 \end{cases}$$
 by the Question.
$$1: \frac{4}{4} = \frac{4}{4}$$

N. B. If you take $e = \frac{1}{2}s + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}ss} - p = 52$ (at the 10th Step) then it will be 76 - 52 = 24 = a + y, which is impossible, viz. that the Mean should be greater than the Sum of the two Extreams. Therefore it must be $e = \frac{1}{2}s - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}ss} - p = 24$. (See page 201.)

Question 20. There are three Numbers in Arithmetical Progression, the first being added to twice the second, and three times the third, their Sum will be 62; and the Sum of all their Squares is 275; What are those Numbers?

Suppose I a, e, y in Arithmetical Progression.

And
$$\begin{cases} 2 & a + 2e + 3y = 62 \\ 3 & a + ee + yy = 275 \end{cases}$$
 by the Question.

Then $\begin{cases} 4 & a + y = 2e, \\ 2e + 2y = 62 - 2e, \end{cases}$ per Sect. I. Chap. 6.

 $\begin{cases} 2 - 4 & 5 \\ 2e + 2y = 62 - 2e, \end{cases}$
 $\begin{cases} 6 - e & 7 \\ 2e + 2y = 31 - e, \end{cases}$
 $\begin{cases} 6 - e & 7 \\ 4 - 7, \end{cases}$
 $\begin{cases} 6 - e & 7 \\ 8 & a = 4e - 31, \end{cases}$

```
8 @ 2
                   aa = 16ee - 248e + 961
               9
     7 022
              IO
                   yy = 961 - 124e + 4ee
                   aa + yy = 20ee - 372e + 1922
  9 + 10
              II
              12
                   ee = 372e - 20ee - 1647
  3 - 11
                   21ee = 372e - 1647
12 + 20 00
              13
                   21ee - 372e = -1647
13-3720
              14
                   ee - \frac{12+}{7}e = -\frac{549}{7}
 14 - 21
              15
                   ee - \frac{12 \pm}{7}e + \frac{384 \pm}{47} = \frac{384 \pm}{47} - \frac{549}{7} = \frac{1}{40}
  15 C 0
              16
    16 w2
                   e - \frac{62}{7} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{49}} = \frac{1}{7}
              17
 17 + 6,2
                   e = \frac{62}{7} + \frac{1}{7} = 9, or 8\frac{5}{7} the Mean
              18
                   4e = 36, or \frac{346}{7}
    18 × 4
              19
                   a = 36 - 31 = 5, or 34^{\frac{6}{7}} - 31 = 3^{\frac{6}{7}}
 8 and 19
              20
                   2e = 18, or 17\frac{3}{7}
   18 x 2
              21
                   y = 31 - 18 = 13, or 31 -
 7 and 21
              22
```

Question 21. There are three Numbers in Arithmetical Progression; the Square of the first Term being added to the Product of the other two is 576; the Square of the Mean being added to the Product of the two Extreams, make 612; and the Square of the last Term being added to the Product of the first into the second, is 792: What are those Numbers?

```
a, e, y in Arith. Progress. as before.
 Suppose
            aa + ye = 576

ee + ya = 612 by the Question.
            yy + ae = 792
            a + y = 2e, per Sect. 1. Chap. 6.
          5
            ae + ye = 2ee
   5 x e
            aa + ye + yy + ae = 1368
  2+4
            aa + yy = 1368 - 2ee
  7-6
            ya = 612 - ee
 3-00
          9
            2ya = 1224 - 2ee
         IO
   9 x 2
            aa + 2ya + yy = 2592 - 4ee
         II
 8 -10
            aa + 2ya + yy = 4ee
         12
   5 @ 2
            4ee = 2592 - 4ee
         13
II and 12
            8ee = 2592
13+400
         14
 14 ÷ 8
             ee = 324
         15
            e = \sqrt{324} = 18, the Mean
         16
   Is au2
            aa + yy = 1363 - 2ee = 720
     . 82
         17
                 2ya = 1224 - 2ee = 576
         18
     1.0,
17 - 18, 19 | aa - 2ya + yy = 720 - 576 = 144
```

$$Or \begin{cases} a = 12 \\ y = 24 \end{cases}$$

Question 22. It is required to find two such Numbers, that the Sum of their Squares may be 8226 \(\frac{1}{2}\); and their Product being added to the Square of the lesser, may be 6921 \(\frac{1}{2}\).

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} 1 & aa + ee = 8226 \frac{1}{2} \\ ae + ee = 6921 \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$
 Quære a and e

$$1 - 2 & 3aa - ae = 1305 \\ ae = aa - 1305 \\ ee = \frac{a^4 - 2610aa + 1703025}{aa}$$

$$1 - aa & 7 & ee = 8226,5 - aa \\ 6 & and & 7 & 8 \\ 8 \times aa & 9 & 4^4 - 2610aa + 1703025 = 8226,5 aa - a^4 \\ 9 + a^4 & 10 & 2a^4 - 2610aa + 1703025 = 8226,5 aa \\ 10 + 11 & 2a^4 - 10836,5 aa = -1703025 \\ 12 & C & 13 & 4^4 - 5418,25aa + 7339358,20562 = 6487845,765 \\ 13 & 3a^2 & 14 & 2709,125 = \sqrt{6487845,765625 - 2547,125} \\ 14 + 27 & 8c & 8aa & 2709,125 + 2547,125 = 5256,25 \\ 17 & aa & 2709,125 + 2547,125 = 5256,25 \\ 17 & aa & 2709,125 + 2547,125 = 5256,25 \\ 17 & aa & 2709,125 + 2547,125 = 5256,25 \\ 17 & aa & 2709,125 + 2547,125 = 5256,25 - 1305 \\ 10 & 3a^2 & 2709,125 - 2547,125 = 162 \\ 10 & 3a^2 & 2709,125 - 2709,125 - 2709,125 - 2709,125 - 2709,125 - 2709,125 - 2709,125 - 2709,125 - 2709,125 - 2709,125 - 2709,12$$

This Question may be performed with less Trouble, by substituting Letters from the known Numbers.

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} aa + ee = z \\ ae + ee = p \end{cases}$$
 Then let $z - p = d = aa - ae$, &c.
F f Question

Question 23. It is required to find three such Numbers, that the Sum of the first and second, being multiplied with the third, may be 37824; and the Sum of the second and third, multiplied with the first, may be 59944; also, that the Sum of the first and third, being multiplied with the second, may be 52456.

Let a, e, y represent the three Numbers.

Question 24. It is required to find two such Numbers, that their Sum being substracted from the Sum of their Squares, may leave 14, and if their Product be added to their Sum, it may make 14.

Let a and e be put for the Numbers, and let y = a + eThen $\left\{ \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{vmatrix} aa + ee - y = 14 \right\}$ by the Question.

```
1 + 7
               aa + ee = 14 + y
              ae = 14 - y
   2 - y
              2ae = 28 - 2y
   4 × 2
              aa + 2ae + ee = 42 - y
   3+5
              a + e = \sqrt{42 - y}
    6 cm2
              a + e = y, by Substitution above.
      But
  7 and 8
              y = \sqrt{42 - y}
    9 32
           10|yy = 42 - y
              yy + y = 42
  10 + 1
           H
 II C D
              yy + y + \frac{1}{4} = 42 + \frac{1}{4} = 42,25
   12 W
           13
              y + \frac{1}{2} = \sqrt{42,25} = 6,5
           |y| = 6,5 - \frac{1}{2} = 6
  13 - \frac{1}{2}
          15 a + e = 6, by Restitution from above.
Consequent
              aa+ee=14+6=20
 3 and 14
           16
                   2ae = 28 - 12 = 16
5 and 15
           17
           18
16-17
              aa - 2ae + ee = 4
   18 cm2
              a-e=\sqrt{4}=2
           19
                                    If a = 4, and e = 2
          20
              2a = 8
15 - 19
                           Proof Then aa + ee - a - e = 14
          21
                a = 4
 23 - 2
                                     And ae + a + e = 14
          22
              e = 6 - 4 = 2
 I - 2I
                                   According to the Question.
```

Question 25. Three Men discoursing of their Money; saith the first, if 100 l. were added to my Money, it would be as much as both your Money put together; faid the second Man, if 100 l. were added to my Money, I should have twice as much as both you have; faith the third Man, if 100 l. were added to my Money, I should have then three times as much Money as both you have; How much Money had each Man?

Let a represent the first Man's Money, e the second, and y

the third.

Then
$$\begin{cases} 1 & a+100 = e+y \\ 2 & e+100 = 2a+2y \end{cases}$$
 by the Question,
$$y+100 = 3a+3e \end{cases}$$

$$1-a + y+100 = 3a+3e$$

$$2-e + y-a = 100 = s \end{cases}$$
 Quære a, e, y .
$$3-y + 6 + 3e + y = 100 = s \end{cases}$$
 Quære a, e, y .
$$3-y + 6 + 3e + y = 100 = s \end{cases}$$

$$4 \text{ and } 6 + y + a = 3a+3e + y = 100 = s \end{cases}$$

$$4 \text{ and } 6 + y + a = 3a+3e + y = 100 = s \end{cases}$$

$$4 \text{ and } 6 + y + a = 3a+3e + y = 100 = s \end{cases}$$

$$4 \text{ and } 6 + 4e + 4e = 2e = 100 = s = 100$$

$$4 + 6 \text{ ii} + 2a + 4e = 2s = 200$$

$$4 + 6 \text{ iii} + 2a + 4e = 2s = 200$$

$$4 + 6 \text{ iii} + 2a + 4e = 2s = 200$$

$$4 + 6 \text{ iii} + 2a + 4e = 2s = 200$$

10 ×
$$\frac{7}{4}$$
 | 12 | 24 a + 4 e = 4 s = 400
12 - 11 | 13 | 22 a = 2 s = 200
13 ÷ $\frac{7}{22}$ | 14 | a = $\frac{5}{11}$ = $\frac{100}{11}$ = $9\frac{1}{11}l$.
10 - 6a | 15 | e = s - 6 a = 100 - $\frac{600}{11}$ = $\frac{500}{11}$ = 45 $\frac{5}{11}l$.
8 ÷ $\frac{7}{2}$ | 16 | y = 2 a + e = $\frac{200}{11}$ + $\frac{500}{11}$ = $\frac{700}{11}$ = 63 $\frac{7}{11}l$.
Answer. The $\frac{5}{11}$ first $\frac{9}{11}$ d. $\frac{1}{12}$ d. $\frac{2}{11}$ d. $\frac{1}{12}$ d. $\frac{1}{12}$ d. $\frac{1}{12}$ d. $\frac{1}{12}$ d.

Question 26. Three Men have each such a Sum of Money, that if the first and second Mens Money be added to Half of what the third Man hath; that Sum will be 92 l. And if the second and third Mens Money be added to one third Part of the first Man's Money, that Sum will be 92 l. Lastly, if one fourth Part of the second Man's Money be added to the first and third Man's Money, that Sum will also be 92 l. How much was each Man's Money?

Put a for the 1st Man's Money, e for the 2d, and y for the 3d.

Question 27. Four Men walking abroad, found a Purse of Shillings only, out of which every one took a Number at an Adventure; afterwards by comparing their Numbers together they found, that if the first took 25 Shillings from the second, it would make his Number equal with what the second had then lest; if the fecond took 30 Shillings from the third, his Money would then be triple to what the third had left, and if the third took 40 Shillings from the fourth, his Money would ther be double to what the fourth had left; laftly, the fourth taking 50 S'illings from the first, he would then have three times as much as the first had left, and 5 Shillings more: It is required to tell how many Shillings each Man had.

Put a for the first Sum, e the second, y the third, and u the

fourth.

Chap. 9.

Then
$$\begin{cases} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & a + 25 = e - 25 \\ e + 30 = 3y - 90 \\ y + 40 = 2u - 80 \\ 4u + 50 = 3a - 145 \end{cases}$$
 by the Question.
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 + 25 & 5 & 4 + 50 = e \\ 2 - 30 & 6 & 3y - 120 = e \\ 5 \text{ and } 6 & 7 & 4 + 50 = 3y - 120 \\ 7 + 120 & 8 & 4 + 170 = 3y \\ 8 \div 3 & 9 & y = \frac{a + 170}{3} \\ 3 - 40 & 10 & y = 2u - 120 \\ 9 \text{ and } 10 & 11 & 2u - 120 = \frac{a + 170}{3} \\ 1 + 120 & 12 & 2u = \frac{a + 170}{3} + 120 = \frac{a + 530}{3} \\ 12 \div 2 & 13 & u = \frac{a + 530}{6} \\ 13 \text{ and } 14 & 15 & 3a - 195 \\ 13 \text{ and } 14 & 15 & 3a - 195 = \frac{a + 530}{6} \\ 15 \times 6 & 16 & 18a - 1170 = a + 530 \\ 16 \div 17 & 18 & a = 100 \text{ the } 1\text{ ft} \\ \text{by the } 5 & 19 & e = 150 & 2d \\ \text{by the } 9 & 20 & 3d \\ \text{by the } 14 & 21 & u = 105 & 4tb \end{cases}$$
 Man's Number of Shillings.

Question 28. Four Men have each a Sum of Money, which being put all together makes 250 Pounds; and if to the first Man's Money be added 8 Pounds, it will be just as much as the fecond Man's Money decreased by 8 Pounds, and as much as 8 times the third Man's Money, and but as much as one eighth Part of the fourth Man's Money; how much had each Man?

Let a, e, y, u, represent the four Men's Money.

That is,
$$\begin{cases} a = 16 \cdot 13 \cdot 9,92592 \\ e = 32 \cdot 13 \cdot 9,92592 \\ y = 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 8,74056 \\ u = 197 \cdot 10 \cdot 7,40736 \end{cases}$$

Consequently $a+e+y+u=249 \cdot 19 \cdot 11,99976$ which should be just 250 l. the Sum proposed in the Question. Now what it wants of that Sum, proceeds from the Impersection of the Decimal Parts being not continued on to more Places, which would have brought it nearer the Truth, tho' not perhaps exactly so. Sect. 5. Chap. 5. Part 1.

Question

Question 29. Several Merchants enter into Partnership, every one put into the Stock 65 times as many Pounds as there were Partners; with that Stock they traded and gained as many Pounds per 1001. as there were Partners. Now if 101. 10s. be added to, and substracted from, their Gain, the Product of that Sum and Difference will be 64911. 6s. 3d.

Quære, How many Merchants there were, &c.

Question 30. Three Merchants join Stocks together; the first Man's Stock was less than the second Man's by 131. the second and third Man's Stock was 1751. in trading they gain 481. more than their whole Stock was; the first Man's proportional Part of the Gain was 78. What was each Man's Stock and Part of the Gain?

Let a, e, y represent each Man's Stock. Then $\begin{cases}
1 & a+e+y=s \text{ the whole Stock.} \\
2 & s+48=\text{ the whole Gain.} \\
3 & a+13=e \\
4+a & 5 & a+e+y=175
\end{cases}$ by the Question. $4+a & 5 & a+e+y=175+a \\
1 & and 5 & 6 & s=175+a$

```
6 and 2 |
          78
             s + 48 = 223 + a
     But
             175 + a : 223 + a :: a : 78 per Question.
    8 ...
          9
             aa + 223a = 78a + 13650
9 - 78a
             aa + 145a = 13650
         IO
 10 C 🗆
             aa + 145a + 5256,25 = 18906,25
          II
             a + 72,5 = \sqrt{18906,25} = 137,5
   II ws²
          12
             a = 137,5 - 72,5 = 65
12 - 72,5
          13
             e = a + 13 = 78
          14
       3,
 4 - 14
          15
             y = 97
              65:78::78:931. 12s = e's Gain.
    Then
          16
             65: 78:: 97: 1161. 8s. = y's Gain.
   Again
         17
          18
             1161. 8s. +931.12s. + 781. = 2881. the Gain.
          19
              65 + 78 + 97 = 240. the whole Stock.
 18 - 19 20 288 - 240 = 48 the Gain more than the Stock.
```

Question 31. A Father at his Death left his three Sons his Money in this manner; to the eldest he gave half of it, wanting 44 Pounds; to the second he gave one third of it, and 14 Pounds more; to the youngest he gave the Remainder, which was less than the Share of the second Son, by 82 Pounds: What was each Son's Share?

Let a, e, y be the three Shares, and z = the whole Sum.

Then
$$\begin{cases} 1 & a + e + y = z \\ a = \frac{1}{2}z - 44 \\ e = \frac{1}{3}z + 14 \\ y = \frac{1}{3}z + 14 - 82 \end{cases}$$
 by the Question.
$$2 + 3 + 4 = 5 \quad a + e + y = \frac{2z}{3} + \frac{z}{2} - 98$$

$$1 \text{ and } 5 \quad 6 \quad z = \frac{2z}{3} + \frac{z}{2} - 98$$

$$6 \times 3 \quad 7 \quad 3z = 2z + \frac{3z}{2} - 294$$

$$7 \times 2 \quad 8 \quad 6z = 4z + 3z - 588$$

$$8 + \quad 9 \quad z = 588, \text{ the whole Sum that was left.}$$

$$2 \text{ and } 9 \quad 10 \quad a = \frac{58}{3} \cdot 8 - 44 = 250, \text{ the eldest Son's Share.}$$

$$2 \text{ and } 9 \quad 10 \quad a = \frac{58}{3} \cdot 8 + 14 = 210, \text{ the fecond Son's Share.}$$

$$4 \text{ and } 9 \quad 12 \quad y = \frac{58}{3} \cdot 8 + 14 = 210, \text{ the fecond Son's Share.}$$

Question 32. A Man playing at Hazard or Dice, won the first Throw just so much Money as he had in his Pocket; the second

fecond Throw he won the Square Root of what he then had, and five Shillings more; the third Throw he won the Square of all he then had; after which his whole Sum was 1121, 16s. What Money had he when he began to play?

```
a = his first Sum.
Suppose
         I
             2a = his Sum after the first Throw.
 I X 2
             5 + \sqrt{2a} = the Winnings at the 2d Throw.
   And
         3
             2a + 5 + \sqrt{2a} = the Sum after the 2d Throw.
2+3
        4
             4aa + 22a + 25 + 4a\sqrt{2}a: +10\sqrt{2}a = the
  4 6-2
         5
               Winnings at the 3d Throw; and therefore
             4aa + 24a + 30 + 4a \ 2a + 11 \ 2a = 2256 Shil.
```

But to avoid these Surd Quantities, let us, instead of supposing a = the first Sum, make a second Trial, viz.

```
Let \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2aa = the first Sum. \\ 4aa = the Sum after the first Throw. \\ Then <math>\begin{vmatrix} 2a + 5 = the Sum won at the 2d Throw. \\ 2 + 3 & 4aa + 2a + 5 = his Sum after the 2d Throw. \\ 4 & 2 & 5 & 16a^4 + 16a^3 + 44aa + 20a + 25 = the Winnings at the 3d Throw; and therefore <math>\begin{vmatrix} 16a^4 + 16a^3 + 48aa + 22a + 30 = 2256 \text{ Shil.} \end{vmatrix}
```

Yet again, to avoid these high Equations, let us make a third Supposition; thus,

```
\frac{aa}{a} = the first Sum.
               aa = the Sum after the first Throw.
   I x 2
               a+5= the Winnings at the 2d Throw.
   Then
  2+3
               aa + a + 5 = the Sum after the 2d Throw.
            4
   Substi.
               e = aa + a + 5.
    5 Q2
               ee = the Winnings at the 3d Throw. Then
               ee + e = 2256 Shillings by the Question.
  5+6
  7 C D
               ee + e + 0,25 = 2256,25
    8 w2
               e + 0.5 = \sqrt{2256,25} = 47.5
            9
9 - 0,5
           10
               e = 47
           II
5 and 10
               aa + a + 5 = 47
           12
 11 - 5
               aa + a = 42
12, C 🗆
           13
               aa + a + 0,25 = 42,25
    I w 2
               a+0.5=\sqrt{42,25}=6.5
           14
            15
                a=6
14 - 0,5
           16
   15 G.2
                aa = 36
                \frac{aa}{2} = \frac{36}{2} = 18 The Shillings he had in his Pocket when he began to play.
                                                          Note.
```

Note, In resolving of the last Question, I have made three different Suppositions for the Thing sought, purely as an Instance, to shew the young Learner how well he ought to consider the Nature of the Question, when he first states it, and make choice of representing the Thing sought, so as to avoid running it into Surds, if possible, viz. as in the first Supposition of a = the first Sum, &c. Not but that such Equations may be solved, as shall be shewed in the next Chapter. However, it is most like an Artist to perform Things of this Nature the nearest and easiest way they can be done.

Question 33. Suppose there were two equal Circles, whose Peripheries (viz. Circumferences) are divided into 44310 equal Parts; and that those Circles were so placed upon one Axis, as to move the contrary way to each other; and suppose one of them to move but one of these equal Parts the first Day, two Parts the second Day, three Parts the third Day, and so on in Arithmetical Progression, viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. and the other to move every Day the Cube of those Parts, 1, 8, 27, 64, 125, &c. of the same Parts: How many Parts and how many Days must each Circle move, before the same two Points meet that were together when they began to move?

In order to give a ready Solution to this Question (or any other in this Kind) it will be convenient to premise this Lemma.

LEMMA.

The Sum of any Series of Cubes whose Roots are in Arithmetick Progression (the first Term, and common Difference being Unity or 1) is equal to the Square of the Sum of all those Roots.

As in thefe

Terms in Arith. their Cubes.

&c.

I I
2 8
3 27
4 64
5 125
6 216 &c.

21 x 21 = 441 Sum of their Cubes.

Let $\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ a = \end{vmatrix}$ the Sum of all the Parts the 1st Circle moves. Then $\begin{vmatrix} 2 \\ aa = \end{vmatrix}$ the Sum of all the Parts the 2d moves. Consequen. $\begin{vmatrix} 3 \\ aa + a = \end{vmatrix}$ 44310 by the Quest. (per Lem. 2 C \Box 4 | aa + a + 0.25 = 44310.25 $4 w^2$ | 5 | $a + 0.5 = \sqrt{44310.25} = 210.5$ 5 - 0.5 | 6 | a = 210 { the Number of Parts the first Circle must move. $6 \otimes^2$ | 7 | aa = 44100 { the Number of Parts the second Circle moves.

Next to find the Number of Days they moved; there is given the first Term = 1, the common Difference = 1, and the Sum of all the Terms = 210, thence to find the last Term, which in this Case is the same with the Number of all the Terms.

Let a=1 the first Term, e=1 the common Difference, and s=210 the Sum of all the Terms, to find y= the last Term; as per Sect. 1. Chap. 6. Then yy+ey=2s+aa-ae by the 16 Step, Page 186; that is, $yy+y=210\times 2=420$ &c. Hence y=20 the Number of Days required.

I shall now proceed to give an Example or two of the Method used in arguing about unlimited Questions; viz. such Questions which admit of various Answers, such as those in Alligation Al-

ternate promised in Page 117.

In order to shorten that Work, it will be convenient for the Learner to know the two Signs of Comparison, \nearrow and \nwarrow . The Sign \nearrow is of Breater than; as $b \nearrow a$ fignifies that b is greater than a. The Sign \nwarrow is of Lesser than; as $b \nearrow d$ fignifies that b is lesser than d, &c.

EXAMPLE I.

Question 34. A Tobacconist hath three Sorts of Tobacco, viz. one of 2s. 8d. the Pound, another of 20d. the Pound, and a third Sort of 16d. the Pound; of these he would make a Mixture to contain 56 Pound, that may be sold for 22d. the Pound: How much of each Sort may he take?

Let a = the Quantity of that worth 32 Pence the Pound, e = that of 20 Pence the Pound, and y = that of 16 Pence the Pound;

Then a + e + y = 56 and 32a + 20e + 16y = 1232 $\begin{cases} viz. \text{ each Quantity multiplied into the mean Price.} \end{cases}$

This Question being thus stated, it appears by Rule 1, Page 176, that it is capable of innumerable Answers; because for any one of these three Letters, a, e, y, there may be taken any Number at Pleasure, provided it be less than 56. But although that may be truly done, yet there are several Ways of arguing about these Sorts of Questions, which will limit or bound them to all their proper or possible Answers in whole Numbers. Thus,

Let And 2
$$a + e + y = 56$$

And 2 $32a + 20e + 16y = 1232$ as above.
 $1 - a$ 3 $e + y = 56 - a$
 $2 - 32a$ 4 $20e + 16y = 1232 - 32a$
 3×16 5 $16e + 16y = 896 - 16a$
 $4 - 5$ 6 $4e = 336 - 16a$
 $6 \div 4$ 7 $e = 84 - 4a$; hence $a = 21$
 $3 - 7$ 8 $5 = 3a - 28$; hence $a = 28$ or $9\frac{1}{3}$

From the two last Steps it appears, that the Quantity signified by a, ought to be less than 21, and greater than $9\frac{1}{3}$; that is, any Number betwixt $9\frac{1}{3}$ and 21, may be taken for the Value of a: Consequently there may be eleven Answers to this Question in whole Numbers.

Suppose a = 10, then e = 84 - 40 = 44, per 7th Step; and y = .0 - 28 = 2, per 8th Step. Again, if a = 11, then e = 84 - 44 = 40, per 7th Step; and y = 33 - 28 = 5, per 8th Step: and so on for the rest, which will be as in the following Table.

11 40 5 15 24 17 19 8 2 12 36 8 16 20 20 20 4 3 13 32 11 17 16 23 2 4 3

Thus it will be easy to find out and collect all the limited Answers to any Question (of this Kind) wherein there are only three Quantities proposed to be mixed: But when there are more than three, then the Work requires a little more Trouble; because the fingle Limits of all the Quantities above two must be found; that is, if there are four Quantities concerned in the Question, the Limits of two of them must be found; if five Quantities are concerned, then the Limits of three of them must be found, &c. As in the following Question.

Question

Question 35. Suppose it were required to mix four Sorts of Wines together; viz. one Sort worth 7s. 4d. the Gallon, another Sort worth 4s. 7d. the Gallon, a third Sort worth 3s. 6d. the Gallon, and a fourth Sort worth 2s. 9d. the Gallon: How much of each Sort may be taken to make a Mixture of 63 Gallons, so as that the whole Quantity may be sold for 5s. 6d. the Gallon, without Loss, &c.

First, let all these several Rates, and the mean Rate, be reduced to one Denomination, viz. into Pence.

Viz.
$$\begin{cases} 7s. 4d. = 88d. & 4s. 7d. = 55d. \\ 3s. 8d. = 44d. & 2s. 9d. = 33d. \end{cases}$$
 and $5s. 6d. = 66$.

Put a = the Quantity of that worth 88 d. the Gallon; e = that of 55 d. the Gallon, y = that of 44 d. the Gallon, and u = that of 33 d. the Gallon.

Then And 2
$$a+e+y+u=63$$
 by the Question.
And 2 $88a+55e+44y+33u=4158=63\times66$
 $e+y+u=63-a$
2 $-88a$ 4 $55e+44y+33u=4158-88a$
 3×33 5 $33e+33y+33u=2079-33a$
 $4-5$ 6 $2e+11y=2079-55a$
 $6\div11$ 7 $2e+y=189-5a$; hence $a=\frac{139}{5}$ or $37\frac{4}{5}$
 $8-4$ 9 $11y+22u=33a-693$
 $9\div11$ 10 $y+2u=3a-63$; hence $a=\frac{63}{3}$ or 21

From the 7th and 10th Steps it appears, that the Quantity of that Sort of Wine denoted by a, must be less than $37 \frac{4}{5}$ Gallons, and greater than 21 Gallons: that is, it may be a = any Number of Gallons betwixt 21 and $37 \frac{4}{5}$. Whence it follows, that there may be collected 16 Answers to this Question from the Limits of a only.

Next to find the Limits of e, y, and u.

Suppose But
$$a = 22$$
, then will $5a = 110$, and $3a = 66$
But $2e + y = 189 - 5a = 79$, per 7th Step.
 $12 - 2e$ 13 $y = 79 - 2e$; hence $e = \frac{79}{2}$ or $39\frac{1}{2}$
Again 14 $s + y + u = 63 - a = 41$, per 3d Step.
 $14 - e$ 15 $y + u = 41 - e$
 $15 - 13$ 16 $u = e - 38$; hence $e = 38$

From the 13th and 16th Steps it appears, that if a = 22, then e = 39, y = 79 - 2e = 1, and u = e - 38 = 1.

Again,

Again,

Suppose But
$$a = 23$$
, then $5a = 115$, and $3a = 69$
But $18 - 2e$ 19 $y = 74 - 2e$; hence $e = \sqrt{\frac{74}{2}} = 37$
Again 20 $e + y + u = 63 - a = 40$, per 3d Step. $20 - e$ 21 $y + u = 40 - e$ $21 - 19$ 22 $u = e - 34$, hence $e = 34$.

From the 19th and 22d Steps it appears, that if a = 13, then e may be either 35 or 36.

Once more for a further Illustration.

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 23 \\ But \end{vmatrix} = 24$$
, then $5a = 120$, and $3a = 72$
But $\begin{vmatrix} 24 \\ 2e + y = 189 - 5a = 69 \end{vmatrix}$, per 7th Step.
 $24 - 2e \begin{vmatrix} 25 \\ y = 69 - 2e \end{vmatrix}$; hence $e = \frac{69}{2}$ or $34^{\frac{1}{2}}$
Again $\begin{vmatrix} 26 \\ e + y + u = 63 - a = 39 \end{vmatrix}$, per 3d Step.
 $26 - e \begin{vmatrix} 27 \\ y + u = 39 - e \end{vmatrix}$
 $27 - 25 \begin{vmatrix} 28 \\ u = e - 30 \end{vmatrix}$, hence $e = 30$.

From hence it appears, that if a = 24, then e may be either 31, 32, 33, or 34, viz. it may be any Number betwixt 30 and $34\frac{1}{2}$ by the 25th and 28th Steps; from whence the Values of y and u may be easily found.

That is, if
$$\begin{cases} e = 3I & \text{then } y = 7 & \text{And } u = I \\ e = 32 & y = 5 & u = 2 \\ e = 33 & y = 3 & u = 3 \\ e = 34 & y = 1 & u = 4 \end{cases}$$

Proceeding on in this manner with all the other fingle Values of a, there may be found above 120 Answers to this Question in whole Numbers: and if you please to put a = Fractions, there may be found an innumerable Set of Answers; whereas the Rule of Alligation in Vulgar Arithmetick affords but only one Answer in Fractions, to wit, that of $a = 31\frac{1}{2}$, $e = 10\frac{1}{2}$, $y = 10\frac{1}{2}$, $u = 10\frac{1}{2}$; as may be easily tried per Rule Page 115, &c.

These two Examples being well understood (especially if the last be thoroughly pursued) may suffice to shew the Method of limiting the Answers to all Sorts of Questions of this Kind. I shall therefore conclude this Chapter of Questions with giving a Solution to the Enigma (or Riddle) proposed (but not answered) by Mr John Kersey, in the Close of the Appendix to his Arithmetick,

which

which affords several pretty Questions, the Solution whereof will discover a certain Sentence consisting of three Words, which must be found by the Help of Figures placed (or supposed to be placed) over the twenty-four Letters of the Alphabet.

Thus
$$\begin{cases} 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 7 \cdot & & c. \end{cases}$$
 called Indices.

So that if the Index of that Letter be once found, the Letter to which it belongs is consequently known.

The Enigma.

1. If the Difference between the Indices of the fecond Letter of the fecond Word, and the third Letter of the first Word, be multiplied into the Difference of their Squares, the Product will be 576; and if their Sum be multiplied into the Sum of their Squares, that Product will be 2336, the Index of the said third Letter being the greatest.

```
a = the greater Index, or that of the 3d Letter.
                    e = the leffer, or that of the 2d Letter.
      And
                    \overline{a-e} \times \overline{aa-ee} = 576 by the Question.
Then {
               5 aaa - aae - aee + eee = 576

6 aaa + aae + aee + eee = 2336

7 2aae + 2ee = 1760

8 aaa + 2aae + 2ee = 1760
                    a + e \times aa + ee = 2336
   6 - 5
  6 + 7
                   aaa+3aae+3aee+eee=4096
     8 w3
                      a + e = 3\sqrt{4096} = 16
                   aa + ee = \frac{2336}{a + e} = \frac{2336}{16} = 146
                   aa + 2ae + ee = 256
                         2ae = 110
              12
                    aa-2ae+ee=36
10 - 12
             13
                   a - e = \sqrt{36} = 6

2a = 22 } { From hence it appears, that the 3d

a = 11 } { Letter of the 1st Word is 1, and the

e = 5 } { 2d Letter of the 2d Word is e.
   13 W 2
             14
             15
 15 - 2
              16
 9-16 171
```

Note, In order to set down the Letters (as they become found) in their proper Places, it may be convenient to supply the vacant Places with Stars.

Thus { First Word. Second Word. Third Word. *****

2. The

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2. The Indices last found, are the two Extreams of four Numbers in Arithmetical Progression, the lesser Mean being the Index of the first Letter of the third Word; and the greater Mean is the Index of the fourth and last Letter of the first Word. Viz. 5.7.9.11 are the four Terms in Arithmetical Progression. Whence it appears, that G (whose Index is 7) is the first Letter of the third Word; and that i (whose Index is 9) is the fourth or last Letter of the first Word; which being placed down, will stand thus,

3. The second Letter of the third Word is the same with the third Letter of the first Word; and the fifth Letter of the third Word is the same with the last Letter of the first Word: Whence the Letters will stand thus,

4. The Sum of the Squares of the Indices of the first and second Letters of the first Word is 520, and the Product of the same Indices is seven Ninths of the Square of the greater Index, which is the Index of the said first Letter.

Let a = the greater, and e = the leffer Index.

Then And 2
$$aa + ee = 520$$
 according to the Data $ae = \frac{7}{9}a$ a $ae = \frac{7}{9}a$ $ae = \frac{49}{81}aa$ $aa = 520 - \frac{49}{81}aa$ $aa = 520 - 49aa$ $aa = 42120 - 49aa$ $aa = \frac{42120}{8w^2} = 324$ $aa = \sqrt{324} = 18$, whose Letter is s. 3 and 9 10 $e = \frac{7}{9}a = 14$, whose Letter is s.

Hence the Letters will stand thus,

5. The Difference between the two last Indices, is the Index of the first Letter of the second Word, viz. 18—14=4 being the Index of the Letter D. Then the Letters will stand thus,

6. The third and last Letter of the second Word, also the third Letter of the third Word, are the same with the second Letter of the first Word; hence the Letters will stand thus,

Soli Deo Glo * i *.

7. The Sum of the Indices of the fourth Letter of the third Word, and the fixth or last Letter of the same Word, being added to their Product is 35; and the Difference of their Squares is 288; the Index of the last Letter being the least.

Put a = the greater, and e = the lesser Index, as before.

Then And
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & ae + a + e = 35 \\ aa - ee = 288 \end{bmatrix}$$
 by the Data.
 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 - a \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} ae + e = 35 \\ ae + e = 35 - a \end{bmatrix}$
 $3 \div a + 1$ $4 = \frac{35 - a}{a + 1}$, for $e \times a + 1 = ae + e$
 $4 \oplus 2$ $5 = \frac{1225 - 70a + aa}{aa + 2a + 1}$
 $2 + 5$ $6 = \frac{1225 - 70a + aa}{aa + 2a + 1}$
 $6 \times aa \& c.$ 7 $\begin{cases} a^4 + 2a^3 + aa = 288aa + 576a + 288 \\ + 1225 - 70a + aa \end{cases}$
 $7 + 8 = 4 + 2a^3 - 288aa - 506a = 1513$

This last Equation being resolved according to the Method which shall be shewed in the next Chapter, it will be a=17 it's Letter; and from the 4th Step $e=\frac{35-a}{a+1}=r$, the Index of the Letter a. Then these two Letters being placed according to the Data above, are all that are required by the Enigma to compleat these Words

Soli Deo Gloria.

CHAP. X.

The Solution of Adfected Equations in Numbers.

BEFORE we proceed to the Solution of Adfected Equations, it may not be amiss to shew the Investigation (or Invention) of those Theorems or Rules for extracting the Roots of Simple Powers, made use of in Chapter 11. Part 1. I shall here make choice of the same Letters to represent the Numbers both given and sought, as in my Compendium of Algebra.

Viz. Let $\begin{cases} G, & \text{always denote the given Refolvend.} \\ r = \begin{cases} \text{any Number taken as near the true Root as} \\ \text{may be, whether it be greater or lefs.} \\ \text{the unknown Part of the Root fought by} \\ \text{which } r \text{ is to be either increased or decreased.} \end{cases}$

Then if r be any Number less than the true Root, it will be r+e= the Root sought. But if r be taken greater than the true Root, it will then be r-e= the Root sought. And put D for the Dividend that is produced from G, after it is lessened and divided by r, &c. (into the Co-efficients of Adsected Equations) according as the Nature of the Root requires. These Things being premised, we may proceed to raising the Theorems.

SECT. I.

I. FOR the Square Root, viz. aa = G. Quære a.

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{r} + e = a \\ \mathbf{I} & \otimes^2 \end{vmatrix}$$
 $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{r} + e = a \\ \mathbf{r} + 2re + ee = aa = G \\ 2-rr \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{r} + e = G \\ 2re + ee = G - rr \end{vmatrix}$. Call it D , viz. $D = G - rr$.

Then $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I}$

Which gives this Theorem $\left\{\frac{D}{r+\frac{1}{2}e}=e\right\}$.

The Arithmetical Operations of both these Theorems, you have in the Examples of Section 2. Page 126, to which I refer the

the Learner, supposing him by this Time to understand them without any more Words than what is there expressed.

II. To extract the Cube Root; viz. aaa = G. Quære a.

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ r+e=a \end{vmatrix}$$
, supposing r less than the true Root.
 $\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{vmatrix}^2 \begin{vmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{vmatrix}$ $rrr + 3rre + 3ree + eee = aaa = G$
 $\begin{vmatrix} 2-rrr \\ 3 \end{vmatrix}$ $3rre + 3ree + eee = G - rrr$
 $3 \div 3r \begin{vmatrix} 4 \\ re + ee + \frac{eee}{3r} = \frac{G-rr}{3r} = D$

Let $\frac{e \cdot e}{3r}$ be rejected or cast off, as being of small Value; then it will be, re + ee = D, which gives this following

Theorem
$$\frac{D}{r+e}=e$$

By this Theorem or Rule, the 1st and 2d Examples in Case 1. Page 132, are performed; the which being compared with this Theorem may be easily understood.

Again, Suppose aaa = G, as before, and let r be taken

greater than the true Root.

Then I
$$r-e=a$$
 { eee being rejected 1 \$\omega\$ 3 \\ 2 \quad \text{rr}-3rre+3ree=a^3=G\$ } as before.
2 \(\pm\$ 3 \quad \text{3rre}-3ree=rrr-G\$ \\
3 \(\pm\$ 3r \quad 4 \quad \text{re}-e=\frac{rrr-G}{3r}=D\$

Which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{r-e}=e$.

By this Theorem the third Example in Case 2. Page 133, is performed.

III. To extract the Biquadrate Root; viz. a4 = G. Quære a.

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} I \\ I \\ \bigcirc 4 \end{vmatrix} = a$$
 fupposing r less than just.
 $\begin{vmatrix} I \\ \bigcirc 4 \end{vmatrix} = a$ fupposing r less than just.
 $\begin{vmatrix} I \\ \bigcirc 4 \end{vmatrix} = a$ free $= a^4 = G$ free $= G - r^4$ force $= G - r^$

Which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{2r+3e}=e$.

By this Theorem the Biquadrate Root of any Number may be extracted. But, as I have already faid, Page 134, those Extractions may be very well performed by two Extractions of the Square Root. Vide Example, Page 135.

IV. To extract the Surfolid Root, viz. $a^5 = G$. Quære a.

If r be taken less than just, then r+e=a, as before, and $\frac{G-r^5}{5\,r^3}=D$, which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{r-2\,e}=e$. By this Theorem the Sursolid Root, Example 1, Page 136, is extracted. But if r be taken greater than just; then r-e=a, and $\frac{r^5-G}{5\,r^3}=D$, which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{r-2\,e}=e$. By this last Theorem the Example in Page 137 is performed.

I presume it needless to pursue the raising of those Theorems, for extracting the Roots of Simple Powers, any further; because the Method of doing it is general, how high soever they are; and therefore it may be easily understood by what is already done.

S E C T. 2.

Notwithstanding I have already shewed the Solution of Quadratick Equations, two several Ways, viz. by casting off the lowest Term; and by compleating the Square, vide Section 2. Page 195, &c. Yet it may not be amis to shew, how those Equations may be resolved into Numbers by this Universal Method of continued Series; wherein, if the first r be taken equal to the first true Root, or single Side of the Resolvend; and every single Value of e (as it becomes found) be still added to it, for a new r, then those Roots may be extracted without repeating a second Operation, as before in the single Powers.

Case I. Let aa + 2ba = G. It is required to find the

Value of a.

Put I
$$r + e = a$$

I \otimes^2 2 $rr + 2re + ee = aa$
I $\times 2b$ 3 $2br + 2be = 2ba$
2 + 3 4 $rr + 2br + 2re + 2be + ee = aa + 2ba = G$
4 - $rr & c$. 5 $2re + 2be + ee = G - rr - 2br$
5 $\div 2$ 6 $re + be + \frac{1}{2}ee = \frac{1}{2}G - \frac{1}{2}rr - br = D$

Which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{r+b+\frac{1}{2}s}=z$.

13

Suppose b = 364, and G = 38692865: If r = 6000, then rr = 36000000, and 2br = 4368000. But 360000000 + 4368000 = 40368000 > 38692865 = G. Therefore the first r = 6000. Let r = 5000, then

Iff
$$r = 5000$$
 $b = 364$

Iff $r + b = 5364$
 $+ \frac{1}{2}e = 400$

2d $r + b = 6164$
 $+ \frac{1}{2}e = 30$
2 Divifor 6194)

3d $r + b = 6224$
 $+ \frac{1}{2}e = 3.5$
3 Divifor 6227.5

Firff $r = 5000$
 $+ e = 867$
 $= 19346432.5 = \frac{1}{2}G$
 $-1432000, = \frac{1}{2}rr + br$
 $5026432.5 = D$ (800 = e

46112

41523 (60 = e

43592.5 (7 = e

867 = e

Case 2. If aa-2ba=G, then proceeding as above, there will arise this Theorem $\frac{D}{r-b+\frac{1}{2}e}=e$, &c. And in Case 3, viz. 2ba-aa=G, you will have this Theorem $\frac{D}{b-r-\frac{1}{2}e}$ &c. as above.

I think it needless to trouble the Reader with the Work of these two Theorems in Numbers; because if the last Example of Case 1, be understood, the other will be easy. Not but that the Method of compleating the Square is very ready and easy, as you may observe by the Work in several Questions of this Chapter.

SECT. 3.

IN the Solution of all Adfected Equations, that are above (or higher than) Quadraticks, it will be the best way to take r = the next nearest Root of the Equation: And then it will be r + e = a, if r be less than just; or r - e = a if r be greater than just (as at the Beginning of this Chapter). And all the Powers of the unknown Part of the Root, (viz. e) above it's Square (ee) are to be rejected or cast off, as before in raising the Theorems for the Simple

Simple Powers. And therefore it is, that to supply the want of those Powers (above ee in the Theorem) the Operation must be repeated: as in the Example of extracting the Cube Root, Page 133, viz. when the Figures in the Root consist of more than three Places. (vide Page 140, and 141.)

Suppose aaa + ba = G. Quære a.

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{J} \end{vmatrix}$$
 $r + e = a \text{ viz. let } r \text{ be fupposed less than just.}$
 $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{J} \\ \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{J} \end{vmatrix}$ $rrr + 3rre + 3ree = aaa$
 $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \times b \\ \mathbf{J} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{J} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{J} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{J} \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \\$

Which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{r + \frac{b}{3r} + e} = e$.

But if r be taken greater than just, then it will be $re + \frac{be}{3r}$ $-ee = \frac{1}{2}rr + \frac{1}{3}b - \frac{G}{3r} = D$, which produces this Theorem $\frac{D}{r + \frac{b}{3r} - e} = e.$

By either of these two Theorems the Value of a may be easily found. Or rather otherwise, as in the following Example.

Let aaa + 24a = 587914. Here b = 24. Suppose the first r = 90, then $r^3 = 729000 > 587914$ without the 24×90 being added to it: Therefore r = 90 Again, Suppose r = 80 then $r^3 = 512000$, and 24r = 1920. But 512000 + 1920 = 513920 = 58791, hence > 70, but nearer to it than 90. Therefore

it must be |
$$r + e = a$$
 less than just.
 $r + e = a$ less than just.
 r

Operation

Operation 80,1

$$+e = 3$$
,
1 Divifor $83,1$) $308,31$ 3

Or rather new r=83.7 for a fecond Operation, which being involved and tried (as above) will be found greater than just: therefore

it must be

| I |
$$r - e = a$$
 | $rrr - 3rre + 3ree = aaa$ | $rrr - 3rre + 3rre$

All the remaining Examples of extracting Roots (except Page 260) are left in the Author's own Method; which by this Time, it is presumed, the Learner will easily know how to correct of himself, if he takes due Notice of what has been delivered Page 131, 132, &c.

But if more Exactness be required, you may make the new r = 83,6776067, and proceed with it to a third Operation; which will afford twenty-seven Places of Figures for the Value of a; that is, every Operation will produce triple the Places of Figures to those of the Precedent r. And this tripling the Places of Figures in the Root, at every Operation, holds good, and is to be observed in the Solution of all Adsected Equations (how high foever they are) according to this Method of resolving them. See Page 141.

Example 2. Suppose aaa - ba = G. Quære a. If r + e = a, then $re - \frac{\frac{1}{3}be}{r} + ee = \frac{\frac{1}{3}G}{r} + \frac{1}{3}b - \frac{1}{3}rr = D$,
which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{r - \frac{\frac{1}{3}b}{r} + e} = e$. But if r - e = a, then $re + \frac{\frac{1}{3}be}{r} + ee = \frac{\frac{1}{3}G}{r} + \frac{1}{3}b - \frac{1}{3}rr = D$,
which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{r + \frac{1}{3}b} + e$

Or you may proceed otherwise, as in the last Example. Let aaa - 6438a = 104785688, here b = 6438. Suppose the first r = 500, rrr = 125000000, and br = 3219000, then 125000000 - 3219000 = 121781000. But 121781000 > 104785688, therefore r < 500. Again, suppose r = 400, rrr = 64000000, and br = 2575200, then will 640000000 - 2575200 = 6142800. But 61424800 < 104785688, hence r < 400; consequently r is betwixt 400 and 500. But 500 is the next nearest; therefore, let r = 500 being greater than just.

Then I
$$r - e = a$$

I \otimes^2 2 $rrr - 3rre + 3ree = aaa$
I $\times b$ 3 $br - be = ba$
2 in Numb. 4 I25000000 - 750000e + I500ee = aaa
3 in Numb. 5 3219000 - 6438e = 6438a
4 - 5 6 I21781000 - 743562e + I500ee = 104785688
6 + 7 743562 - I500ee = 16995312
7 ÷ I500 8 495e - ee = II330 = D
8 ÷ 9 $e = \frac{D}{495 - e}$

Operation 495

$$-e = 20$$
I Divifor 475)

 $-e = 3$
 472

II330

 $(500,0=r)$
 $23,8=e$
 $476,2=r-e=a$

I830
I416

414,0
377,6

Let new r=476 for a 2d Operation, then $r^3=107850176$ and br=3064488: but 107850176-3064488=104785688 the same with the Resolvend. Consequently a=476 just.

Example 3. Let ba-aaa = G. Quære a. If r+e=a, then $\frac{1}{3}be = re - ee = \frac{1}{3}\frac{G}{r} + \frac{1}{3}rr - \frac{1}{3}b = D$, which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{\frac{1}{3}b} - re$ $- ee = \frac{1}{3}\frac{G}{r} + \frac{1}{3}rr - \frac{1}{3}b = D$, which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{r} - ee = \frac{1}{3}\frac{G}{r} + \frac{1}{3}rr - \frac{1}{3}b = D$, which gives this Theorem $\frac{D}{r} - \frac{1}{3}\frac{D}{r} - ee$

Or otherwise as before in the two last Examples. Thus, let 123456a-aaa=12272861. Here b=123456. Suppose the first r=200, then rrr=8000000, and br=24691200; then 24691200-8000000=16691200, but 16691200-12272861, therefore r is here less than just, because the highest Power is—, or Negative. Again, Suppose r=300, then $r^3=27000000$, and br=37036800, then 37036800-27000000=10036800-12272861. Consequently r=300, and r=200. Let r=300, being the next nearest, but more than just.

Then I r-e=aI \otimes^{3} 2 rrr-3rre+3ree=aaaI $\times b$ 3 br-be=ba2 in Numb. 4 27000000 — 270000 e+900ee3 in Numb. 5 37036800 — 123456 e5 — 4 6 10036800 + 146544e-900ee=1227286I 6 — 7 146544e-900ee=223606I 7 ÷ 900 8 162 e-ee=2484=DI ÷ &c. 9 $e=\frac{D}{162-e}$

Operation 162

$$-e = 10$$

Ift Divifor 152)

 $-e = 6$

2d Divifor 646)

2484 $(300,0 = r)$

16.6 = e

152 $283,4 = r - e = a$.

288,0

88,0

88,0

86,6

Or new r = 283, which being involved, &c. will appear to be the true Root, that is, a = 283 just.

Note, These are usually called the three Forms of Cubick Equations; and in the Solution of the third or last Form, viz. ba-aaa = G, you may meet with some seeming Difficulties; especially in making Choice of the first r, because this Equation is an ambiguous Equation, and hath two Affirmative Roots, viz. a greater and lesser Root. But having once sound either of them, the other may be easily obtained by Division only; as in the Quadratick Equations. Vide Chap. 8. As for Instance, in the last Example, a = 283 and 123456a - aaa = 12272861. Make these two Equations = 0, to wit, let a - 283 = 0, and -aaa + 123456a - 12272861 = 0.

Then,
$$a-283$$
) $-aaa+123456a-12272861$ ($-aa-283aa+283aa$) $-283aa+123456a$ ($-283a-283aa+80089a$) $+43367a-12272861$ ($+43367a-12272861$) (0) (0)

Hence it appears that -aa - 283a + 43367 = 0. Consequently aa + 283a = 43367 this Equation being solved, a = 110, 2722 &c. which is the lesser Root of the aforesaid Equation ba - aaa - G, &c. After this Manner all the possible and impossible Roots of any Equation may be easily discovered, any one of it's Roots being once found. I shall therefore omit inserting more Examples of that kind.

Suppose aaa + baa + ca = G. Quære a. Let b = 74, c = 8729, and G = 560783. By Trial (as before) it will be found that the next nearest r = 40 being something less than just.

Therefore

Therefore
$$1 \times c$$
 $2 \times c$ 2

Or new r = 41,5 for a fecond Operation, which being duly involved, &c. will be found more than just.

Therefore
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{vmatrix}$$
 $r-e=a$

Then $\begin{cases} 2 \\ cr-ce=ca \\ brr-2bre+bee=baa \\ rrr-3rre+3ree=aaa \end{cases}$

These being turned into Numbers, &c. as above, they will be 20037.75e - 198.5ee = 390.375, which being divided by 198.5 the Co-efficient of ee, will become 100.946e - ee = 1.966624, &c. = D.

Operation 100,946

$$-e = 01$$

1st Divisor 100,936)
 $-e = ,009$

2d Divisor 100,927)

$$\begin{array}{c}
1,966624 \\
1,966624 \\
1,00936 \\
957264 \\
908343 \\
\hline
* 489210 \\
403708
\end{array}$$

Let the last Equation in the Enigma, Chap. 9. be here proposed for a Solution. Viz. aaaa + baaa - caa - da = G; b = 2, c = 288, d = 506, and G = 1513, Quære a. By Trials it will be found, that the next nearest r = 20, being something more than just.

Therefore
$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} & r - e = a \\ \mathbf{I} \times d \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & r - e = a \\ 2 & dr - de = da \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{I} \otimes^2 \times c & 3 & crr - 2cre + cee = caa \\ \mathbf{I} \otimes^3 \times b & 4 & brrr - 3brre + 3bree = baaa \\ \mathbf{I} \otimes^4 & 5 & r^4 - 4rrre + 6rree = aaaa \end{vmatrix}$$

These being turned into Numbers, and those duly collected, according as the Signs of the Equation direct, they will become 50680 - 22374e + 2232ee = 1513, which being all divided by 2232 the Co-efficient of ee, will be 10e - ee = 22 = D.

Then
$$\frac{D}{10-e}=e$$
.

Operation 10
$$-e = \frac{3}{2}$$
Divisor 22 $\begin{pmatrix} 20 = r \\ 3 = e \end{pmatrix}$

$$\frac{21}{17} = r - e = a \text{ just.}$$
See the End of Chap. 9.

By what hath been already done about the Solution of these sew Equations (being carefully observed) I presume the Learner will easily conceive how to proceed in the Solution of all Kinds of Equations, be they never so high, or adsected; therefore I shall not here propose many various Examples, but only take them as they fall in Course, when I come to the next Part, wherein you will (perhaps) find such Equations with their Solutions as are not common.

CHAP. XI.

Of Simple Interest, Annuities, or Pensions, &c.

INTEREST, or the Use paid for the Loan of Money, is either Simple, or Compound.

Sect. 3. Of Simple Interest.

SIMPLE Interest, is that which is paid for the Loan of any Principal or Sum of Money, lent out for some Time, at any Rate per Cent. agreed on between the Borrower and the Lender; which, according to the late Laws of England, ought to be six Pounds for the Use of 100 l. for one Year, and twelve Pounds for the Use of 100 l. for two Years; and so on for a greater, or lesser

Sum, proportionable to the Time proposed.

There are several Ways of computing (or answering Questions about) Simple Interest; as by the single and double Rule of Three (See Page 96, &c.) others make use of Tables composed at several Rates per Cent. as Sir Samuel Moreland, in his Doctrine of Interest, both simple and compound, all performed by Tables; wherein he hath detected several material Errors committed by Sir Isaac Newton, Mr Kersey upon Wingate, and Mr Clavil, &c. in the Business of computing Interest, &c. by their Tables, too tedious to be here repeated. But I shall in this Tract take other Methods, and shew that all Computations relating to Simple Interest are grounded upon Arithmetick Progression; and from thence raise such general Theorems, as will suit with all Cases. In order to that

Let $\begin{cases} P = \text{any Principal or Sum put to Interest.} \\ R = \text{the Ratio of the Rate, per Cent. per Annum.} \\ t = \text{the Time of the Principal's Continuance at Interest.} \\ A = \text{the Amount of the Principal, and it's Interest.} \end{cases}$

Note, The Ratio of the Rate, is only the Simple Interest of 11. for one Year, at any given Rate; and is thus found.

Viz. 100:6:1:0,06 = the Ratio at 6 per Cent. per Annum.

Or 100:7 :: 1:0,07 = the Ratio at 7 per Cent. &c. Again 100: 7,5:: 1:0,075 = the Ratio at 7 and $\frac{1}{2}$ per Cent.

And if the given Time be whole Years; then t = the Number of whole Years: but if the Time given, be either pure Parts of a Year, or Parts of a Year mixed with Years; those Parts must be turned into Decimals; and then t = those Decimals, &c.

Now

Now the common Parts of a Year may be easily turned or converted into Decimal Parts, if it be considered

That one Day is the $\frac{1}{365}$ Part of a Year = 0,00274 ferè Month is the $\frac{1}{12}$ Part of a Year = 0,0833333 &c. Quarter is the $\frac{1}{4}$ Part of a Year = 0,25

These Things being premised, we may proceed to raising the Theorems.

Let R = the Interest of 11. for one Year, as before.

Then 2 R = the Interest of 11. for two Years. And 3 R = the Interest of 11. for three Years.

4 R = the Interest of 11. for four Years. And so on

for any Number of Years proposed.

Hence it is plain, that the Simple Interest of one Pound is a Series of Terms in Arithmetic Progression increasing; whose first Term and common Difference is R, and the Number of all the Terms is t. Therefore the last Term will always be tR = the Interest of 1 l. for any given Term signified by t.

Then & As one Pound: is to the Interest of 11. :: so is any

Principal or given Sum: to it's Interest.

That is, 11.: tR::P:tRP= the Interest of P. Then the Principal being added to it's Interest, their Sum will be =A the Amount required; which gives this general Theorem.

Theorem 1. tRP + P = A.

From whence the three following Theorems are eafily deduced.

Theorem 2. $\frac{A}{tR+1} = P$. Theorem 3. $\frac{A-P}{tp} = R$.

Theorem 4. $\frac{A-P}{RP} = t$.

These sour Theorems resolve all Questions about Simple Interest.

Question 1. What will 2561. 10s. amount to in 3 Years, one Quarter, 2 Months, and 18 Days, at 6 per Cent. per Annum.

Here is given P = 256,5; R = 0,06; and t = 3,46599For 3 Years = 3 Quære A. per Theorem 1. one Quarter = 0,25

2 Months = $0.16667 = 0.08333 \times 2$ 18 Days = $0.04932 - 0.00274 \times 18$

Hence $t = 3,40599 : \times 0,06 = 0,2079594 = tR$

Then $0,2079594 \times 256,5 = 53,341586 = tRP$ And 53,341586 + 256,5 = 309,841586 = tRP + P = A. That is, 309,841586 = 3091. 16s. 10d. being the Answer required.

Question

Question 2. What Principal or Sum being put to Interest, will raise a Stock of 309 l. 16s. 10 d. in three Years, one Quarter, two Months, and 18 Days; at 6 per Cent. per Annum?

Or the same Question otherwise stated thus.

What is 3091. 16s. 10d. due 3 Years, one Quarter, 2 Months and 18 Days hence, worth in ready Money; abating or discounting

6 per Cent. &c.

Here is given A = 309,841586; R = 0,06; t = 3,46599 (found as before) thence to find P. Per Theorem 2. First $3,46599 \times 0,06 = 0,2079594 = tR$. Then

tR+1=1,2079594) 309,841586 = A (256,5 = P; that is, 256,5 = 256 l. 10 s. the Answer required.

Question 3. At what Rate or Interest, per Cent. &c. will 2561. 108. amount to 3091. 168. 10d. in three Years, one

Quarter, two Months, and 18 Days?

Here is given, P=256,5; A=309,841586; and t=3,46599 to find R. Per Theorem 3. First 309,841586-256,5=53,341586=A-P. Next $3,46599 \times 256,5=889,026435=t$ R. And t R=889,026435) 53,341586 (00,06 = the Ratio. Then 11.: 0,06:: 120: 6 = the Rate required.

Question 4. In what Time will 2561. 10s. raise a Stock of

(or amount to) 3091. 16s. 10d. at 6 per Cent. &c.

Here is given, P=256,5; A=309,841586, and R=0,06 to find t. Per Theorem 4. First 309,841586-256,5=53,341586=A-P. And $256,5\times0,06=15,39=PR$. Then 15,39) 53,341586 (3,46599=t; that is t=3 Years and ,46599 Decimal Parts of a Year; which may be brought into common Parts of a Year, thus

0,46599 And 0,08333) 0,21599 (2 Months.
0,25 = one Quarter.
0,21599 0,02074) ,04933. (18 Days.

Hence t = 3 Years, one Quarter, 2 Months, and 18 Days; the Answer required.

It must needs be easy to conceive, that what is here done at 6 per Cent. may be done at any other Rate of Interest, by forming the Ratio (viz. R) accordingly.

SCHOLIUM.

Although it be according to the Laws and Custom of England, to compute Interest at the Proportion of 6 per Cent. (as above) yet he that takes up Money at Interest for any Time less than even or compleat Years, pays more Interest than seems reasonably due, according to the Rules of Art. As for Instance; if 100 l. be forborne at Interest one whole Year, it amounts to 106 l. But (I say) if it be paid at the half Year's End, it should not amount to 103; as appears from this following Proportion.

Let a = the Amount due at the half Year's End; then it will be 100: a :: a :: 106 the Amount at the Year's End. Ergo aa = 10600, and $a = \sqrt{10600} = 102,9563 = 102l$. 10s. $1\frac{1}{2}d$. which is less than 103 l. by $10\frac{1}{2}d$. And if it be paid in less than half a Year's Time, the Error must needs be the greater.

Sect. 2. Of Annuities, or Pensions in Arrears, computed at Simple Interest.

ANNUITIES, or Pensions, &c. are said to be in Arrears, when they are payable or due, either Yearly, or Half-yearly, &c. and are unpaid for any Number of Payments. Therefore the Business is, to compute what all those Payments will amount unto, allowing any Rate of Simple Interest for their Forbearance, from the Time each particular Payment became due: Now in order to that,

Put $\begin{cases} u = \text{ the Annuity, Penfion, or Yearly Rent, } & & \\ t = \text{ the Time of it's Continuance, or being unpaid.} \\ R = & \\ \text{the Ratio, or Interest of 11. for 1 Year, as before.} \\ A = & \\ \text{the Amount of the Annuity and it's Interest.} \end{cases}$ Then if u = the first Year's Rent, due without Interest.

Ru = the Interest due at the End of the second Year.

2Ru = the Interest due at the End of the third Year.

3Ru = the Interest due at the End of the fourth Year.

4Ru =the Interest due at the End of the fifth Year.

And so on for any Number of Years. Hence it is evident, that Ru + 2Ru + 3Ru + 4Ru + 5u = A the Sum of all the Rents and their Interest, being forborne 5 Years

From

From whence it follows, that Ru + 2Ru + 3Ru + 4Ru = A - tu. Divide by u, then $R+2R+3R+4R=\frac{A-tu}{u}$. Here t=5.

Next to find the Sum of this Progression (See Page 185) thus, Let R+2R+3R+4R &c. = z, then 1+2+3+4 &c. = $\frac{z}{R}$. Here the Sum of the first and last Terms are 4+1=5=t, and the Numbers of all the Terms is 4 = t - 1. Therefore $\frac{t-1}{2} \times t =$ the Sum of all the Terms; that is, $\frac{t+-t}{2} = \frac{z}{R}$: hence $\frac{t + R - tR}{2} = z$. Consequently $\frac{t + R - tR}{2} = \frac{-tu}{2}$

Now from this Equation it will be easy to deduce the following Theorems.

Theorem 1. $\frac{ttRu - tRu + 2tu}{2} = A$, or $\frac{ttu - tu}{2} = R$: +tu = A. Theorem 2. $\frac{2A}{ttR-tR+2t}=u.$ Theorem 3. $\frac{2A-2tu}{ttu-tu}=R:$ Let $\frac{2}{R} - 1 = x$, then $t = \sqrt{\frac{2A}{Ru} + \frac{xx}{A}} : -\frac{1}{2}x$ Theorem 4.

Question 1. If 2501. yearly Rent (or Pension, &c.) be forborn or unpaid seven Years; what will it amount to in that Time, at 6 per Cent. for each Payment, as it becomes due?

Here is given u = 250, t = 7, and R = 0.06; to find A. Per Th. 1. First $250 \times 7 = 1750 = tu$, $1750 \times 7 = 12250 = ttu$. Again 12250 - 1750 = 10500 = ttu - tu, and $\frac{10500}{2} \times 0.06 = 315$. Laftly 315+1750=2065=A; Viz. 2065 l. is the Answ. required.

But if the Annuity, Rent, or Pension, is to be paid by Quarterly or half yearly Payments, &c. Then $\frac{0.06}{2} = 0.03 = R$ for half yearly Payments: and $\frac{0.06}{4} = 0.015 = R$ for quarterly; or 0.045 = R for three quarterly Payments. Example of half yearly Payments.

Suppose 2501. per Annum, to be paid by half yearly Payments, were in Arrears, or unpaid for seven Years; what would it amount th, allowing 6 per Cent. per Annum for each Payment, as it becomes due? Kk

In this Example there is given $u=125=\frac{250}{2}$; t=14 the Number of Payments; and $R=0.03=\frac{0.06}{2}$; thence to find A.

First $125 \times 14 = 1750 = tu$; $1750 \times 14 = 24500 = ttu$: again 24500 - 1750 = 22750 = ttu - tu; then $\frac{22750}{2} = 11375$, and $11375 \times 0,03 = 341,25$. Lastly 341,25 + 1750 = 2091,25;

that is, A=20911.5s. the Answer required.

N. B. Hence it may be observed, that half yearly Payments are more advantageous than yearly. For 2091 l. 5s. > 2065 l. by 26 l. 5s. consequently, quarterly Payments are more advantageous than half yearly Payments.

Question 2. What yearly Rent, Pension, &c. being forborn or unpaid seven Years, will raise a Stock of 20651. allowing 6 per

Cent. per Annum for each Payment, as it becomes due?

Here is given A = 2065, t = 7, and R = 0.06; to find u. Per Theorem 2. First $7 \times 0.06 = 0.42 = tR$, and 0.42×7 = 2.94 = ttR. Then ttR - tR = 2.52. Lastly ttR - tR + 2t = 16.52) 4130 = 2A (250 = u; that is, 250 l. per Annum, &c. will raise 2065 l. the Stock required.

Question 3. In what Time will 2501. yearly Rent raise a Stock of 20651. allowing 6 per Cent. &c. for the Forbearance of the

Payments as they become due?

Here is given u = 250, A = 2065, and R = 0.06; to find t.

Per Theorem 4. First $\frac{2}{R} = \frac{.06}{2} = 33.3333$; and 33.3333 = 10. $1 = 32.3333 = x = \frac{2}{R} - 1$. Then 16.16666 & c. $= \frac{1}{2}x$; 261.3605 & c. $= \frac{1}{4}xx$. Again $\frac{413.0}{15} = 275.333 = 2A \div Ru$, and $275.3333 + 261.3605 = 536.6938 = \frac{2A}{Ru} + \frac{1}{4}xx$. Then 4.536.6938 = 23.1666. Lastly, 23.1666 - 16.1666 = 7 = t the Time required.

Question 4. If 2501. yearly Rent, being forborn seven Years, will amount to 20651. allowing Simple Interest for every Payment as it becomes due; what must the Rate of the Interest be per Cent. &c.?

Here is given u = 250, A = 2065, and t = 7; to find R:

Per Theorem 3.

: 15

Thus $\begin{cases} ttu = 12250 \\ tu = 1750 \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} 4130 = 2A \\ 3500 = 2tu \end{cases}$

ttu - tu = 10500) 630 = 2A - 2tu (0,06 = R. Then 1: 0,06:: 100: 6 the Rate required.

Sect. 3. The Present Worth of Annuities or Pensions, &c. computed at Simple Interest.

THE Business of purchasing Annuities, or taking of Leases, &c. for any affigned Time, depends upon the true equating of the Principal or Money laid out on the Purchase, with the Annuity or Yearly Rent, by allowing (or discompting) the same Rate of Interest to both Parties. Which may be easily performed by duly applying the respective Theorems of the two last Sections together; as will fully appear by the sollowing Question.

Question 1. What is 751. yearly Rent, to continue nine Years, worth in ready Money, at 6 per Cent. per Annum Simple Interest?

1. Per Theorem 1. of the last Section, find what the proposed yearly Rent would amount to, if it were forborn 9 Years, at 6 per Cent.

Thus
$$u = 75$$
, $t = 9$, and $R = 0.06$:

 $ttu = 6075$
 $tu = 675$

Then 2) 5400 (2700 } Multiply

 $tu = 675$
 $tu = 5400$
 $tu = 675$
 $tu = 675$, t

2. Then by Theorem 2. Section 1. find what Principal, being put to Interest for the same Time, and at the same Rate, will amount to 837.l. = A. Thus $tR = 0.54 = 9 \times 0.06$; tR + 1 = 1.54) 837 (543.5064 = P: that is, P = 543.l. 10s. $1\frac{1}{2}d$. which is the Worth of 75 l. a Year, as was required.

From the Work of these two Operations (duly considered) it must needs be easy to conceive, how the two Theorems by which they were performed, may be combined in one.

For 1. $\frac{ttRu - tRu + 2tu}{2} = A$; and 2. PtR + P = A.

Consequently $PtR + P = \frac{ttRu - tRu + 2tu}{2}$. And from this Equation may be deduced the following Theorems.

Theorem 1.
$$\frac{ttRu - tRu + 2tu}{2tR + 2} = P, \text{ or } \frac{ttR - tR + 2t}{2tR + 2} \times u = P.$$

By this Theorem all Questions of the same Kind with the last (viz. that above) may be easily and readily answered at one Operation.

K k 2

Theorem

Theorem 2.
$$\frac{2PtR + 2P}{ttR - tR + 2t} = u, \text{ or } \frac{tR + 1}{ttR - tR + 2t} : \times 2P = u.$$
Theorem 3.
$$\frac{2P - 2tu}{ttu - tu - 2Pt} = R.$$
Let
$$\frac{2}{R} - \frac{2P}{u} - 1 = x, \text{ then will } tt + xt = \frac{2P}{Ru}.$$
Which gives this Theorem 4.
$$\sqrt{\frac{2P}{Ru} + \frac{xx}{u}} : + \frac{x}{2} = t.$$

By the second and sourth Theorems, two very useful Questions

may be easily answered.

I. As for Instance: If it be required to find what Annuity, or yearly Rent, &c. may be purchased, for any proposed Sum, to continue any assigned Time, allowing any Rate of Interest?

This Question may be answered by Theorem 2.

2. Again: If it be required to find how long any yearly Rent, Pension, or Annuity, &c. may be purchased (or enjoyed) for any proposed Sum, at any given Rate of Interest?

All Questions of this Kind are easily answered by Theorem 4.

In these Questions it is supposed, that the Purchase, or yearly Rent, is to commence or be immediately entered upon. But if it be required to find the Value or Purchase of an Annuity or yearly Rent, &c. in Reversion; that is, when it is not to be entered upon until after some Time, or Number of Years are past; then you must first find what the Sum proposed to be laid out in the Purchase, would amount to, if it were put to Interest, during the Time the Annuity, &c. is not to be put in present Possession; and make that Amount the Sum for the Purchase, proceeding with it as in either of the two last Questions, &c.

Note, From the first Question of this Section it will be easy to conceive how to perform the Equation of Payments, between Debtor or Creditor, at any Rate of Interest, without doing any Damage to

either Party.

That is, when several Sums of Money are to be paid, at several different Times, to find the Time when all the Fayments may be truly discharged at once: as if one Sum were to be paid at the End of two Months, another at fix Months, and perhaps a third Sum at eight Months end, &c. And if it were required to find the Time when all those Sums may be truly discharged at one Payment without Loss, &c.

CHAP. XII.

Of Compound Interest, and Annuities, &c.

OMPOUND Interest is that which arises from any Principal and it's Interest put together, as the Interest so becomes due; fo that at every Payment, or at the Time when the Payments became due, there is created a new Principal; and for that Reason it is called Interest upon Interest, or Compound Interest.

As for Instance; Suppose 100 l. were lent out for two Years. at 6 per Cent. per Annum, Compound Interest: then at the End of the first Year, it will only amount to 106 l. as in Simple Interest. But for the second Year this 1061. becomes Principal, which will amount to 1121. 7s. 2 ½ d. at the second Year's End, whereas by

Simple Interest it would have amounted to but 112 l.

And altho' it be not lawful to let out Money at Compound Interest; yet in purchasing of Annuities or Pensions, &c. and taking Leafes in Reversion, it is very usual to allow Compound Interest to the Purchaser for his ready Money; and therefore it is very requisite to understand it.

Sect. 1. Of Compound Interest.

P = the Principal put to Interest. t = the Time of it's Continuance. Let A = the Amount of the Principal and Interest. 5 the Amount of 11. and it's Interest for 1 Year, at lany given Rate, which may be thus found.

Viz. 100:106::1:1,06 = the Amount of 11. at 6 per Cent. Or 100:105::1:1,05 = the Amount of 11. at 5 per Cent. and so on for any other assigned Rate of Interest.

Then if R = the Amount of 11. for one Year, at any Rate.

 R^2 = the Amount of 11. for two Years. R^3 = the Amount of 11. for three Years. R^4 = the Amount of 11. for four Years.

 $R^s =$ the Amount of 11. for five Years. Here t = 5

For $1:R::R:RR::RR::RRR::RRR::R^4::R^4::R^5:&c. in ::...$ (As one Pound: is to the Amount of one Pound at one That is Year's End :: so is that Amount : to the Amount of One Pound at two Years End, &c.

Whence

Whence it is plain, that Compound Interest is grounded upon a Series of Terms, increasing in Geometrical Proportion continued; wherein t (viz. the Number of Years) does always assign the Index of the last and highest Term: Viz. the Power of R, which is R^t.

Again, As $I: R^t:: P: PR^t = A$ the Amount of P for the Time that $R^t =$ the Amount of Il.

That is \{ As one Pound: is to the Amount of one Pound for any given Time:: so is any proposed Principal (or Sum) to it's Amount for the same Time.

From the Premises (I presume) the Reason of the sollowing Theorems, may be very easily understood.

Theorem 1. $PR^t = A$, as above.

From hence the two following Theorems are easily deduced.

Theorem 2.
$$\frac{A}{R^t} = P$$
. Theorem 3. $\frac{A}{P} = R^t$.

By these Theorems, all Questions about Compound Interest may be truly resolved by the Pen only, viz. without Tables; tho' not so readily as by the Help of Tables, calculated on purpose; as will appear farther on.

Question 1. What will 2561. 10s. amount to in seven Years, at 6 per Cent. per Annum, Compound Interest?

Here is given P = 256,5; t = 7; and R = 1,06 which being involved until it's Index = t (viz. 7.) will become $R^7 = 1,50363$. Then $1,50363 \times 256,5 = 385,6811 = A = 3851$. 13s. $7\frac{1}{2}d$. which is the Answer required.

Question 2. What Principal or Sum of Money must be put (or let) out to raise a Stock of 385 l. 138. 7½ d. in seven Years, at 6 per Cent. per Annum, Compound Interest?

Here is given A = 385,6811; R = 1,06; and t = 7; to find P, by Theorem 2. Thus $R^t = 1,50363$) 385,6811 = A(256,5 = P). That is, P = 256l. 10s. which is the Principal or Sum, as was required.

Question

Question 3. In what Time will 2561. 10 s. raise a Stock of (or amount to) 3851. 13s. $7\frac{1}{2}d$. allowing 6 per Cent. per Annum, Compound Interest?

Here is given P=256,5; A=385,6811; R=1,06; to find t by the third Theorem $R^t=\frac{A}{P}=\frac{385,6811}{256,5}=1,50363$, which being continually divided by R=1,06 until nothing remain, the Number of those Divisions will be 7=t. Thus 1,06) 1,50363 (1,41852. And 1,06) 1,41852 (1,338225. Again 1,06) 1,338225 (1,262477. And so on until it become 1,06) 1,06 (1. which will be at the seventh Division. Therefore it will be t=7 the Number of Years required by the Question.

Question 4. If 256 l. 10 s. will amount to (or raise a Stock of) 385 l. 13 s. $7^{\frac{1}{2}}$ d. in seven Years Time; what must the Rate of Interest be, per Cent. per Annum?

Here is given P = 256,5; A = 385,6811, and t = 7, Quære R. By Theorem 3. $\frac{A}{P} = R^t = 1,50363$; as before in the last Question. And if $R^t = R^7 = 1,50363$, then $R = \sqrt{1,50363}$, which may be thus extracted.

Put | I |
$$r + e = R$$
, then
I $\textcircled{0}^{7}$ | 2 | $r^{7} + 7r^{6} e + 21r^{5} ee = R^{7} = 1,50363 = G$
2 - r^{7} | 3 | $7r^{6} e + 21r^{5} eeG - r^{7}$
3 $\div 7r^{5}$ | 4 | $re + 3ee = \frac{G - r^{7}}{7r^{5}} = D$
4 \div | 5 | $e = \frac{D}{r + 3e}$; let $r = I$, then $D = 0,0719$

Operation
$$r = 1,00$$

 $+ 3e = 0,18$
Divisor $1,18$) $0,0719$ $0,06 = e$
 $\frac{708}{11}$ $1,06 = r + e = R$

Then 1: 0,06:: 100: 6 the Rate per Cent. required.

The first three Questions may be much more easily performed by the following Table, which is only the Amounts of one Pound for thirty-nine Years. That is, of R. RR. RRR. R4. R5. and fo on to R39.

-	Sat	The Amounts of 11. at 6 perCent. &c. Compound Interest.		The Amounts of 11. at 6 perCent. &c. Compound Interest.	ars	The Amounts of 11. at 6 perCent. &c. Compound Interest.
	1 2 3 4	$1.06 = R$ $1.1236 = RR$ $1.191016 = R^3$ 1.26247696	14	2.2609039557 2.3965581931 2.5403516847	27 28 29	4.8223459407 5.1116866971 5.4183878990 5.7434911729
	5	1.4185191122	17 18	2.6927727857 2.8543391529 3.0255995021	30 31 32	6.0881006432 6.4533866818
	7 8 9 10	1.5036302590 1.5938480745 1.6894789590 1.7908476965	21 22	3.2071354722 3.3995636005 3.6035374166	33 34 35	6.8405898828 7.2510252757 7.6860867923
	11 12 13	1.8982985583 2.0121964718 2.1329282601	23 24 25 26	3.8197496616 4.0489346413 4.2918707197 4.5493829629	36 37 38 39	8.1472519998 8.6360871198 9.1542523470 9.7035074878

The Title of this Table shews it's Construction, and it's Use will easily appear by an Example or two.

EXAMPLE 1.

What will 375 l. 10 s. amount to in nine Years, at 6 per Cent.

per Annum, &c.?

The tabular Number against 9 Years is 1,689479 which being multiplied with the Principal 375,5 will produce 634,3993 &c. viz. 6341.8 s. ferè, being the Amount or Answer required.

EXAMPLE 2.

What Principal (or Sum) must be put to Interest to raise a Stock of 634 l. 8 s. in nine Years Time, at 6 per Cent. per Annum, &c.

If the proposed Stock (viz. 634,4) be divided by the tabular Number that is against the given Number of Years (viz. 9.) the Quotient will be the Principal (or Sum) required. Viz. against 9 is 1,689479. Then 1,689479) 634,4 (375,5 = 375 l. 10s. the Principal (or Sum) required.

EXAMPLE 3.

In what Time will 375 l. 10 s. raise a Stock of (or amount to) 634 l. 8 s. at 6 per Cent. &?

Divide

Divide the proposed Stock (viz. 634,4) by the given Principal (viz. 375,5) and the Quotient will shew the tabular Number that stands over against the Time sought. Thus

375,5) 634,4 (1,689479 86.

This Number being fought in the Table, will be found to stand

against 9 Years, which is the Time required.

But if the Quotient cannot be truly found in the Table of Amounts for Years, as above; then take out of that Table the nearest Number that is less, and make it a Divisor, by which you must divide the first Quotient; and then seek the second Quotient in the Table of Amounts for Days (which is inserted a little further on) and it will assign the Number of Days; as in this Example.

In what Time will 5631. amount to 8601. at 6 per Cent. per Annum, Compound Interest?

Answer. In 7 Years and 99 Days.

Thus 563) 860 (1,52753 which shews the Time to be more (or above) seven Years; for over against 7 Years is 1,50363 which being made the new Divisor: Viz.

1,50363) 1,52753 (1,01589 &c.

This Number is the nearest Amount to 99 Days.

Note, If the Stock, Principal, and Time be given; the Rate of Interest will be best found by extracting the Root, &c. as before in the fourth Question.

The next Thing that I shall here propose, is to make this Table (which is only calculated for the Rate of 6 per Cent.) universally useful for all the Rates of Compound Interest, which I may presume to say, is a new Improvement of my own, being well satisfied it never was published before; and not only so, but I have heard several very good Artists affirm it was impossible to be done.

The Method of performing it is briefly thus, Let x =the Difference between 1,06 = R, the Amount of 1l. for one Year (in the Table), and any other proposed Amount of 1l. for one

Year; which admits of two Cases.

Case 1. If the proposed Rate be greater than the 1,06 $\equiv R$, then will R + x = the true Amount of 11. for one Year at that Rate.

Case 2. But if the proposed Rate be less than 1,06 = R, then it will be R = x = the Amount of 11. &c.

Make $\begin{cases} t-1=b, \ t-2=c, \ t-3=d, \ t-4=f, \&c. \\ \frac{1}{2} t b=g, \ \frac{1}{4} c g=m, \ \frac{1}{4} d m=n, \ \frac{1}{4} f n=s, \&c. \\ L 1 \end{cases}$ Then

Then will $R^t + t R^b x + g R^c x^2 + m R^d x^4 &c.$ = the Amount of 1 l. at the given Rate, for any Time denoted by t, in Case 1. And $R^t - t R^b x + g R^c x^2 - m R^d x^3 &c.$ = the Amount of 1 l. in Case 2.

Which is no more but this: Let R + x or R - x (which foever it is) be involved (as directed in Sect. 5. Chap. 2.) to the fame Power or Height as the Index t the given Time in the Question denotes: rejecting all the Powers of x above xxx or xxxxat most, as useless. Then multiply that Power of R + x or R - x into the given Principal, and their Product will be the Amount required.

An Example or two in each Case will render all easy.

EXAMPLE 1.

Suppose it were required to find what 2561. would amount to in fifteen Years, at 81. per Cent. per Annum Compound Interest? Here t = 15.

First 100: 108:: 1:1,08 the Amount of 1 l. at 8 per Cent. Next 1,08-1,06=0,02=x. And R+x=1,08 as in Case 1. Then $R^{15}+15$ $R^{14}x+105$ $R^{13}xx+455$ $R^{12}xxx$ &c. = the Amount of 1 l. for 15 Years, at 8 per Cent.

Here x = 0.02. xx = 0.0004. and xxx = .000008By the Table $R^{15} = 2.396558$ And $\begin{cases}
15 R^{14}x = 2.260904 \times 15 \times .02 = 0.678271 \\
105 R^{13}xx = 2.132928 \times 105 \times .0004 = 0.089583 \\
455 R^{12}xxx = 2.012196 \times 455 \times .00008 = 0.007324
\end{cases}$ Sum = 3.171736

Then $3,171736 \times 256 = 811,964416 = A$. That is, $8111.95.3\frac{1}{2}d$. ferè. Which is the Answer required.

EXAMPLE 2.

What will 365 l. amount to in seven Years at four and a half per Cent. &c.

First 100: 104,5:: 1:1,045 the Amount of 11. at $4\frac{1}{2}$ 1.

per Cent.

Next 1,06-1,045 = 0,015 = x. Confequently R-x=1,045 as in Case 2.

Then $R^7 - 7R^6x + 21R^5xx - 35R^4xxx$ &c. = the Amount of 11. for 7 Years, at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per Cent.

Here

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Th

Here x = .015; xx = .000225; and xx = 000003375

By the Table
$$R^7 = + 1,503630$$

$$\begin{cases}
-7 & R^6 & x = -0,148944 \\
+21 & R^5 & xx = +0,006323 \\
-35 & R^4 & xxx = -0,000141
\end{cases}$$

 $R^7 - 7 R^6 x + 21 R^5 x x - 35 R^4 x x x = 1,360868$

Then $1,360868 \times 365 = 496,71682 = A.$

That is, 496 l. 14 s. 3 1/4 d. is the Answer required.

If the Reason of these two Operations be but well understood, it will be very easy to conceive how to find P, the Principal, by having A, t, and x given (because R and it's Powers are always given by the Table).

For
$$R^{c} + t R^{b} x + g R^{c} x x + m R^{d} x x x \times P = A$$
 (as above).

Therefore
$$\frac{A}{R^{c} + t R^{b} x + g R^{c} x x + m R^{d} x x x} = P.$$

Or if A, P, and t, be given, x may be found.

For
$$Ri \pm t Rbx + g R^cxx \pm m R^dxxx = \frac{A}{P}$$
. This Equa-

tion being folved (as in Chap. 10.) the Value of x will be found; and then either R + x, or R - x will shew the Rate of Interest, \mathcal{C}_c .

But I shall leave the numerical Operations to the Learner's Practice, supposing enough done to shew how all Questions of this Kind that are limited by whole Years may be computed.

And if the Time given or fought be not terminated by whole Years, but by Weeks, Months, Quarters, or Half-Years, &c. for resolving such Questions, the best Way will be to reduce those Parts of a Year into Days; that done, find an Answer according to the Demand of the Question (and agreeing to 11. as before) for that Number of Days; and in order to that, it will be requisite to find the Amount of 11. for one Day (as in my Compendium of Algebra, Page 110) which I shall here insert.

Put a = the Amount fought, then it will be

I:a::a:aa::aa::aaa::aaa::aaaa:... to a355.

L 1 2

Then

```
Then the last of the Terms will be a^{365} = 1,06
       Put
               r + e = a. And let r = r
     1 @_365
               r^{365} + 365 r^{364} e + 66430 r^{363} ee = a^{365} = 1,06
               1 + 365e + 66430ee = 1,06
2 in Numb.
            3
               365e + 66430ee = 0.06
            4
4 ÷ 66430
               ,00549e + ee = 0,0000009032 = D
            5
                     ,00549 + €
Operation ,00549
   + 0= ,0001
                                    I_{1},00000000 = r
Ist Divisor ,00559) 0,0000009032
                                    0,0001598 = e
   + e = ,00015
                             559
                                    1,0001598 = r + e = a^{\dagger}
2d Divisor ,00574
                             )3442
                                       true to the 7th Figure
                             2870
                                       and only too much by
   +e = ,000059
3d Divisor ,005799
                                        2 in the 8th, at one
                              157200
                                        Operation.
   Now r = 1,00016 for a fecond Operation.
 2 in Numb.
                 1,06013401407 + 386,887 e + 70402,172 ee
                 = 1,06. Hence it appears that r - e = a.
             8
  Therefore
                 1,06013401407-386,887 e+70402,172 ee
                 = 1,06
                 386,887e - 70402,172ee = 0,00013401407
              9
                ,0054953 - ee = ,0000000019035503
                      ,0000000019035503
                         ,0054953 - 6
 Operation,0054953
   - e ==
                                           1,00016 = r
 Ist Divisor, 0054950) 0,000000019035503\0,000000346417=0
                                 164850
                                           1,000159653583 = r
           ,00549466
                                 2550503
   - e =
                                  2197864
 2d Divisor ,005494614
                                  )35263900
                                  32967684
 3d Divisor ,00549460
                                   12296216
                                    2197840
```

Which being further pursued to a third Operation will give a = 1,000159653587453 &c. This

98376 54946 This Value of a is the Amount of 11. for one Day, from which, if 11. be substracted, the Remainder = ,000159653587 &c. will be the Interest of 11. for one Day. Consequently, it any proposed Principal be multiplied into either of these, the respective Product will be the Amount or Interest of that Principal for one Day, at 6 per Cent. &c.

And that the Amount (or Interest) of any Principal or Sum may be easily computed for any Number of Days less than a Year; I have here inserted the sollowing Table, which with a great deal of Care (and I believe Exactness) is calculated from the last found (1,000159653587453) Amount of 11. for one Day. To which also is annexed a Table of the Amounts of 11. for

Months.

Days	Amounts of 11.	Days	Amounts of 11.	Days	Amounts of 11.
I 2	1.0001596536	26 27	1.0041592879	51	1.0081749166
3 4	1.0004790372	· 28	1.0044799487	53 54	1.0084968597
5	1.0007985229	30	1.0048007120	55	1.0088189057
6 7 8	1.0009583039	31 32 33	1.0049611320	57	1.0089799673
9	1.0014378002	34 35	1.0054425457	59	1.0094633062
11	1.0017575920	36	1.0057636164	61	1.0097856608
12	1.0019175262 1.0020774859 1.0022374712	37 38 39	1.0059241901 1.0060847895 1.0062454146	62 63 64	1.0099468767
15	1.0023974820	40	1.0064060653	65	1.0104306789
16	1.0025575184	41 42	1.0065667416	66	1.0105919978
18	1.0028776677	43	1.0078881712	68	1.0109147128
20	1.0031979193	45	1.0072097035	70	1.0112375309
22 23	1.0035182732	47	1.0075313385	72 73	1.0115604521
24 25	1.0038387294	49 50	1.0078530762	74 75	1.0118834764

Days	Amounts of 11.	Days	Amounts of 11.	Days	Amounts of 11. &c.
76	1.0122066038	116	1.0186908655	156	1.0252166658
77		117	1.0188535031	157	1.0253803453
78		118	1.0190161667	158	1.0255440509
79	1.0126914885	119	1.0191788563	159	1.0257077827
80	1.0128531683	120	1.0193415719	160	1.0258715406
81	1.0130148739	121	1.0195043134	161	1.0260353247
82	7 7 7 7 7 7	122	1.0196670809	162	1.0261991349
83	33331	123	1.0198298745	163	1.0263629713
84		124	1.0199926934	164	1.0265268338
85		125	1.0201555389	165	1.0266907225
86	1 3 - 7 - 7 - 7 3	126	1.0203184110	166	1 0268546374
87	4, 3, 3,	127	1.0204813084	167	1.0270185784
88	1 1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1/1	128	1.0206442319	168	1.0271825456
89	10011	129	1.0208071814	169	1.0273465389
90		130	1.0209701569	170	1.0275105585
91	1 2227	131	1.0211331585	171	1.0276746046
9:	11/2/21	132	1.0212961861.	172	1.0278386764
93	1 1 1 1 2 1 3	133	1.0214592397	173	1.0280027746
94	1 / 1 / 1	134	1.0216223193	174	1.0281668989
9		135	1.0217854250	175	1.0283310494
96	1 1 1 1 1	136	1.0219485567	176	1.0284952262
97		137	1.0221117144	177	1.0286594291
98	;), ,	138	1.0222748982	178	1.0288236583
100		139	1.0224381081	179	1.0289879137
	-	-			-
101	1.0.02144.30	141	1.0227646060	181	1.0293160231
10:	1	142	1.0229278940	183	1.0294908372
104) 1 / / / /	143	1.0230902081	184	1.0298095841
10	11 313	145	1.0234179146	185	1.0299739969
106	-	146	1.0235813069	186	
10		140	1.0235813009	187	1.0301384359
108	1 1 1	148	1.0239081699	188	1.0304673928
100	13/ 7	149	1.0240716405	189	1.0306319206
110	1 1 2 2 2	150	1.0242351372	190	1.0307964557
111	The second district of	151	1.0243986600	191	1.0309610251
II		152	1.0245622089	192	1.0311256216
11:		153	1.0247257830	193	1.0312902445
112	- 1 11-	154	1.0248893851	194	1.0314548937
II		155	1.0250530124	195	1.0316195692

Days	Amounts of 11.	Days	Amounts of 11.	Days	Amounts of 11.
196	1.0317842709	236	1.0383939484	276	1.0450459680
197	1.0319489990	237	1.0385597318	277	1.0452128133
198	1.0321137534	238	1.0387255415	278	1.0453796853
199	1.0322785341	239	1.0388913778	279	1.0455446584
200	1.0324433410	240	1.0390572405	280	1.0457135092
201	1.0326081742	241	1.0392231298	281	1 0458804611
202	1.0327730339	242	1.0393890454	282	1.0460474397
203	1.0329379198	243	1.0395549876	283	1.0462144449
204	1.0331028321	244	1.0397209563	285	1.0463814768
205	The second secon	-		286	
206	1.0334327355	246	1.0400529732	287	1.0467156206
207	1.0335977268	248	1.0403850961	288	1.0468827325
200	1.0339277883	249	1.0405511973	289	1.0472170363
210	1.0340928586	250	1.0407173250	290	1.0473842283
211	1.034257955.2	251	1.0408834793	291	1.0475514469
212	1.0344230782	252	1.0410496601	292	1.0477186923
213	1.0345882275	253	1.0412158674	293	1.0478859643
214	1.0347534033	254	1.0413821012	294	1.0480532631
215	1.0349186054	255	1.0415483616	295	1.0482205885
216	1.0350838338	256	1.0417146485	296	1.0483879407
217	1.0352490887	257	1.0418809620	297	1.0485553196
218	1.0354143699	258	1.0420473021	298	1.0487227252
219		259	1.0422136687	299	1.0488901576
220	1.0357450115	260	1.0423800618	300	1.0490576166
221	1.0359103719	261	1.0425464815	301	1 0492251025
222	2 1717	262	1.0427129278	302	1.0493926150
223		263	1.0428794007	303	1.0495601543
224		265	1.0430459001	304	1.0497277204
226		266	-	306	The second division in which the second
220	3 13131	267	1.0433789787	300	1.0500629327
228		268	1.0437121637	308	1.0503082521
229	31	269	1.0438787961	309	1.0505659519
230		270	1.0440454551	310	1.0507336786
231	1.0375654287	271	1.0442121407	311	1.0509014320
232		272	1.0443788529	312	1.0510692121
233		273	1.0445455918	313	1.0512370191
234	1.0380624612	274	1.0447123572	314	1.0514048529
239	1.0382241916	275	1.0448791493	315	1.0515727134
			1	1	

Days	Amounts of 11.	Days	Amounts of 11.	Days	Amounts of 11.						
316 317 318	1.0517406008 1.0519085150 1.0520764559	339	1.0556094165	362 363 364	1.0594924636 1.0596616154 1.0598307942						
319	1.0522444237	341 342 343	1.0559465071	365	1.06						
321 322 323	1.0525804397 1.0527484880 1.0529165631 1.0530846650	344 345 346	1.0564523448 1.0566210112	M	The Amounts of 11. at 6						
324 325 326	1.0532527937	347 348 349	1.0569584248 1.0571271720 1.0572959594	Months	per Cent. For Months.						
327 328 329	1.0535891317	350	1.0574647472	1 2 3	1.0048675505 1.0097587042 1.0146738462						
330	1.0540938401	352 353 354	1.0578024303	- 5	1.0196128224						
332 333 334	1.0544304467 1.0545987903 1.0547671608	355 356	1.0583091570	6 7 8	1.0295630141 1.0345744641 1.0396103076						
335 336 337	1.0549355582	357 358 359 360	1.0586471097 1.0588161265 1.0589851703	9 10	1.0446706634 1.0497556507 1.0548653894						
338	1.0554409116	361	1.0593233389	12	1.06						

The use of this Table is in all respects like that of whole Years, in finding the Amount of any given Sum for any proposed Number of Days less than a Year.

EXAMPLE I.

Suppose it were required to find the Amount of 375 l. for 210 Days, at 6 per Cent.

The Amount of 11. for 210 Days is 1,0340928 &c. per Table. Then 1,0340928 \times 375 = 387,7848 &c. = 3871. 155. 8 \frac{1}{4}d. which is the Amount required. And the rest of the Variations may be performed just as in the Examples of whole Years.

But if the Time given confifts of Years, and Parts of a Year; as Quarters, Months, &c. Then reduce the odd Time or Parts of the Year into Days; and the Answer may then be found at two Operations; as in the following Example.

EXAMPLE.

Example 2. Suppose it were required to find what 265 l. would amount to in five Years and 135 Days at 6 per Cent. &c.

First, the Amount of 1 l. for \{ 5 Years is 1,338225, &c. \\ 135 Days is 1,021785, &c.

Then 1,338225 × 1,021785 × 265 1. = 362,355232, &c. being the Amount or Answer required.

Or, if the Amount and Time are given, to find the Principal: Then multiply the Amount of 1 l. for the Years, and the Amount of 1 l. for the odd Days together: And by their Product divide the given Amount, the Quotient will be the Principal required.

Example 3. What Principal will raise a Stock of 362 l. 7 s. 14d. Or 362,355232 l. in 5 Years and 135 Days, at 6 per Cent. &c.

The Amount of 1 for { 5 Years is 1,338225, &c. 135 Days is 1,021785, &c.

Then 1,338225 \times 1,021785 = 1,367378, &c. the Divisor. Next 1,367378) 362,355232 = A (265 l. the Principal required.

Again, if the Principal and its Amount are given, to find the Time, at 6 per Cent. &c. you must divide the Amount by its Principal, and then proceed as in the Third Example, Page 256, for the Answer required.

But if the Amount and its Principal, with the Time of its being at Interest, are given, to find the Rate of Interest: Then proceed

as in the Fourth Question, Page 255, &c.

Now in order to make this Table of Amounts for Days useful for all Rates of Interest (as before in that for Years) you must first find the Simple Interest of 1 l. for one Day, both at the given Rate, and also at 6 per Cent. And call their Difference x.

Thus, suppose the given Ratio were 8 per Cent. per Annum, First 130:8::1:0,08 And 100:6::1:0,06 the Two Sim-

ple Interests for one Year.

Then 365) 0,08 (0,00021917, &c. the Simple Interest of 1 l. for one Day, at 8 per Cent.

And 365) 0,06 (0,00016438, &r. the Simple Interest of 1 l.

for one Day, at 6 per Cent.

Their Difference 0,00005479 = x, which may do indifferently well for ordinary small Questions: But where Exactness is required, it will be convenient to make Use of this Proportion:

Viz.

Viz. Sas the Simple Interest of 1 l. for one Day at 6 per Cent.: Is to the Tabular Interest of 1 l. for one Day:: So is the Simple Interest of 1 l. for one Day, at any given Rate: To a Fourth Number.

That is, 0,00016438:0,00015965::0,00021917:0,00021286 Then 0,00021286—0,00015965 = 0,00005321 = x.

This z being involved with the respective Amounts for Days, in the same Manner as was done with those for Years (vide Page 258) the Result will be the Answer to the Question.

Sect. 2. Annuities or Pensions in Arrear, computed at Compound Interest.

When Annuities, &c. are faid to be in Arrear, see Page 248. And I shall here make Use of the same Letters to represent the same Things as before in that Page, save only that R is here equal to the Amount of 1 l. as in Section 1. of this Chapter.

Suppose u = the First Year's Rent of any Annuity without Interest.

Then will $Ru + u = \begin{cases} \text{the Amount of the First Year's Rent, and} \\ \text{its Interests; More the 2d Year's Rent.} \end{cases}$

And $RRu + Ru + u = \begin{cases} \text{the Amount of the 1st and 2d Years} \\ Rents, \text{ with their Interests}; \text{ More the } \\ 3d \text{ Year's Rent}, &c. \end{cases}$

Here RRu + Ru + u = A, the Amount of any Yearly Rent or Annuity, being forborne Three Years. And from hence may be deduced these Proportions:

Viz. u: Ru:: Ru:: RRu:: RRu:: RRRu, and so on in \div for any Number of Terms or Years denoted by t, wherein the last Term will always be uR^{t-1} .

Confequently, $A-uR^{t-1}$ = the Sum of all the Antecedents And A-u = the Sum of all the Confequents in the Series.

And therefore it would be $u:uR:A-uR^{t-1}:A-u$, Vide Page 188.

Ergo $Au - uu = RuA - uuR^t$, which, being divided all by u, will become $A - u = RA - uR^t$.

From this last Aquation it will be easy to raise the following Theorems:

Theorem 1. $\left\{\frac{uR^t-u}{K-1}=A\right\}$. Theorem 2. $\left\{\frac{RA-A}{K-1}=u\right\}$. Theorem

Theorem 3. $\left\{ \frac{RA + u - A}{u} = R^t \right\}$. If this Equation be continually divided by R, until nothing remain, the Number of those Divisions will be t. See Page 255

Theorem 4. $\left\{ \frac{\Lambda}{u} R - R^{t} = \frac{\Lambda - u}{u} \right\}$. If this Equation be refolved into Numbers, according to the Method proposed in Sect. 3. Chap. 10. the Root will show the Value of R.

QUESTION 1. If 30 l. Yearly Rent, or Annuity, &c. be forborne (i. e. remain unpaid) Nine Years; what will it amount to, at 6 per Cent. per Annum, Compound Interest?

Here is given u = 30, t = 9, and R = 1,06; to find A. per

Theorem 1.

 $R^9 = 1,689479$ By the Table of Amounts for Years 30 = u

 $R^9u = 50,684370$ -u = 30,

R-1=0.06) 20.684370 (344.7395 = 344l. 14s. $9\frac{1}{2}d.=A$, the Amount required.

QUESTION 2. What Yearly Rent or Annuity, &c. being forborne or unpaid Nine Years, will raise a Stock of 344 l. 14 s. 9½ d. = 344,7395, at 6 per Cent. &c.

Here is given A = 344,7395, t = 9, and R = 1,06; to find u.

per Theorem 2.

 $AR = 344,7395 \times 1,06 = 365,42387$ -A = 344,7395

 $R^{t} - 1 = 1,689479 - 1 = 0,689479$) 20,68437 (30 = u.

QUESTION 3. In what Time will 30 l. Yearly Rent raise a Stock or Amount to 344 l. 14 s. 9 2 d. allowing 6 per Cent. for the Forbearance of Payments?

Here is given u = 30, A = 344,7395, and R = 1,06; to

find t. per Theorem 3.

First AR + u - A = 365,42387 + 30 - 344,7395 = 50,68437. And u = 30) 50,68437 (1,689479 = R° . Then R = 1,06) 1,689479 (1,593848. And 1,06) 1,593848 (1,50363; and so on until it become 1,06) 1,06 (1. which will be at the Ninth Division; therefore t = 9.

M m 2 Oc

Or R = 1,689479, being fought in the Table of Amounts for Years, will be found to stand over-against 9 Years, which is the Time required.

QUESTION 4. If 30 l. per Annum, being unpaid Nine Years, will amount to 344 l. 14 s. 9½ d. allowing Compound Interest for every Payment as it becomes due, What must the Rate of Interest be per Cent. &c.

Here is given u = 30, A = 344,7395, and t = 9; to find R by the last of the Four Equations, Viz. $\begin{cases} \frac{A}{u}R - R^{t} = \frac{A - u}{u} \end{cases}$

First $\frac{A}{u} = \frac{344.7395}{300} = 11,491317$. And $\frac{A-u}{u} = 10,491317$.

Hence there is this Equation; 11,491317 $R - R^9 = 10,491317$.

Let | 1 | r + e = R, and suppose r = 1 $| 1 \odot 9 | 2 | r^9 + 9r^8e + 36r^7ee = R^9$ $| 1 \times \frac{z}{u}$ in Numb. | 3 | 11,491317 + 11,491317e = 11,491317R $| 2 | 1 \times \frac{z}{u}$ in Numb. $| 4 | 1,0000000 + 9,0000000e + 36ee = R^9$ | 3-4 | 5 | 10,491317 + 2,491317e - 36ee = 10,491317Whence | 6 | 36ee = 2,491317e

First r = 1 + e = 0.06 = 1.06 = R As may be easily try'd by involving it, and ordering it, as the Equation above directs.

 $6 \div 36e | 7 | e = 0.06, &c.$

Section 3. To find the Present Worth of Annuities, Penfions, or Leases, &c. at Compound Interest.

Let P = the present Worth of any Annuity, or Lease, &c. and the rest of the Letters as before.

Then, from what has been said in Section 3. Chap. 11. about Purchasing of Annuities, &c. at Simple Interest, it will be easy to form the like Theorems here at Compound Interest, viz. by Combining Theorem 1. Page 266. and Theorem 1. Page 254. into one Theorem.

For $\left\{ \frac{uR'-u}{R-1} = A \right\}$ The Amount of any Yearly Rent being unpaid any Number of Years. Per Theorem 1. of the last Section. Page 266.

And PR' = A The Amount of any Principal or Sum being put to Interest, for the same Number of Years. Per Theorem 1. Page 254.

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Hence it follows, That $P R^t = \frac{u R^t - u}{R - 1}$,

Viz. $PR^{t+1} - PR^{t} = uR^{t} - u$ being the very same Equation with that in my Compendium of Algebra, Page 112. which is there raised from the Consideration of purchasing Annuities, or taking of Leases, &c. to be grounded upon a Rank or Series of Geometrical Proportionals continually decreasing. Thus $\frac{u}{R}$ is the First and Greatest Term; R the common Ratio of all the Terms; and P is the Sum of all the Series.

That is, $\frac{u}{R}: \frac{u}{RR}: \frac{u}{RR}: \frac{u}{RRR}: \frac{u}{RRR}: \frac{u}{R^4}: \frac{u}{R^4}: \frac{u}{R^5}$, &c. in :: until the last $Term = \frac{u}{R^5}$. Then will $P - \frac{u}{R^5}$ be the Sum of all the Antecedents, and $P - \frac{u}{R}$ the Sum of all the Consequents. Therefore it will be

 $\frac{u}{R}:\frac{u}{R\bar{R}}$. Or (in the same Ratio) $u:\frac{u}{R}::P-\frac{u}{R^t}:P-\frac{u}{R^t}$ which produces $PR^{t+1}-uR^t=PR^t-u$. As above. From this $\cancel{Equation}$ may be deduced the following Theorems:

Theorem 3. $\left\{ \frac{u}{P+u-PR} = R^{t} \right\}$ Which, being continually divided by R, will give t.

Theorem 4. $\left\{ \frac{u}{P} = \frac{u}{P} R^t + R^t - R^{t+1} \right\}$. The Refolving of which \mathbb{Z}_q will discover the Value of R.

Question 1. What is 30 l. Yearly Rent, to continue Seven Years, worth in ready Money, allowing 6 per Cent. Compound Interest to the Purchaser?

Here is given $u = 30 \cdot t = 7$. And R = 1,06 to find P.

per Theorem 1. Viz. $\frac{u}{R^t} = \frac{30}{1,50303} = 19,9517$.

And 30 — 19,9517 = 10,483 = $u - \frac{u}{R^2}$

Then

Then R-1=0,06) 10,0483 (167,4716=P=167 l. 9s. 5d. being the Answer required.

Question 2. What Annuity or Yearly Rent, to continue Seven Years, may be purchased for 167 l. 9 s. 5 d. allowing 6 per Cent. Compound Interest to the Purchaser?

In this Question there is given $P = 167,4716 \cdot t = 7$ And R = 1,06 to find u. By the Second Theorem. First $P R^t \times R = 251,8153 \times 1,06 = 266,9242$ And $P R^t = 167,4716 \times 1,50363) = 251,8153$

Then $R^t - 1 = 0,50363$ 15,1089 (30 = u) That is u = 30 l. the Answer required.

Question 3. How long may one have a Lease of 30 l. Yearly Rent, for 167 l. 9 s. 5 d. allowing 6 per Cent. Compound Interest to the Purchaser?

Here is given $P = 167,4716 \cdot u = 30$. And R = 1,06 to find t. By the Third Theorem.

First P+u=167,4716+30=197,4716And PR=177,5199

Then $19,9517)30 = u(1,50363 = R^{t}$

If this $1,50363 = R^t$ be either continually divided by 1,06 = R until nothing remain (As before in Page 255.) Or if it be fought in the Table of Amounts for Years, &c. it will discover t = 7 which is the true Answer required.

Question 4. Suppose one should give 167 l. 9 s. 5 d. for the Purchase of a Pension, or Annuity of 30 l. per Annum, to continue Seven Years: At what Rate of Interest, per Cent. would that Purchase be made, allowing Compound Interest to the Purchase?

In this Question there is given, $P = 167,4716 \cdot u = 30$ and t = 7 to find R. Per Theorem 4 in this \mathbb{E} quation $\left\{\frac{u}{P} = \frac{u}{P}\right\}$ $\mathbb{R}^t + \mathbb{R}^t - \mathbb{R}^{t+1}$, which being brought into Numbers, and its Root extracted, as in the fourth Question of the last Section; the Value of R will be found 1,06, and then it will be 1:0,06::100:6, the Rate per Cent. as was required.

Thefe

These Four Questions include all the Varieties that can be proposed about purchasing Annuities or Leases, &c. which are to be either immediately enter'd upon, or in Possession at the Time when the Purchase is made.

But such Questions as relate to Annuities, or a taking of Leases, &c. in Reversion, must be parted or divided into two distinct Questions, each to be separately consider'd by itself (See Page 252.)

As in the following Examples:

Example 1. Suppose it were required to compute the present Worth of 75 l. Yearly Rent, which is not to commence or be enter'd upon, until Ten Years hence; and then to continue Seven Years after that Time: at 6 per Cent. &c. Compound Interest?

The First Work in this Question is, to find what 75 l. per Annum, to continue Seven Years, is worth in ready Money; as if it were to be immediately enter'd upon: And to perform that, there is given u = 75. R = 1,06. and t = 7. to find P. as in the First Question of this Section.

Thus,
$$\frac{u}{R^t} = \frac{7c}{1,50363} = 49,8793$$
 And $75 - 49,8793 = 25,1207$
= $u - \frac{u}{R}$.

Then, R = 1 = 0.06) 25,1207 = 418,6783 = 4181. 14s. $6\frac{3}{4}d$.

the Answer to the First Part of the Question.

Then the next Work will be, to find what Principal or Sum being put out Ten Years, at 6 per Cent. &c. will amount to 418 l. 14s. 6 3 d. Here is given A = 418,6783, R = 1,06, t = 10. to find P. Per Theorem 2. Page 254.

Thus $R^{10} \equiv 1,790847$) 418,6783 = A (233,7884 = 233 l. 15 s. 9 d. the prefent Worth of 75 l. per Annum in Reversion, &c. As was required.

Example 2. What Annuity or Yearly Rent, to be enter'd upon Ten Years hence, and then to continue Seven Years, may be purchased for 2331. 15 s. 9 d. Ready Money, at 6 per Cent. &c. Compound Interest?

In the 1st Work of this Question there is given, P = 233,7884 R = 1,06. And t = 10 (the Time which the Annuity is not to be enter'd upon) to find A. Per Theorem 1. Page 254.

Thus,
$$PR^t = 233,7884 \times 1,790847 = 418,6783 = A$$
 the Amount

Amount of 233 l. 15 s. 9 d. put to Interest Ten Years, at 6 per Cent. &c. Then, for the Second Work of the Question, there is given P = 418,6783. R = 1,06. And t = 7 (the Time that the Annuity is to be enjoy'd) to find u. Per Theorem 2. of this Section.

Thus $PR' \times R = 418,6783 \times 1,50363 \times 1,06 = 667,3095$ $-PR' = 418,6783 \times 1,50363 = 629,5372$

 $R^{t}-1=0,50363)$ 37,7723(75=u That is, u=75l. the Yearly Rent required by the Question.

These Two Examples of finding P and u do fully shew the Method that must be used in Resolving the two General, and indeed, the most useful Questions about Annuities or Leases in Reversion: And if there be Occasion, either the Rate, or the Time, viz. R or t, may be found by a due Application of their respective Theorems.

Note, That which hath been done in the two last Sections about Annuities or Yearly Rents, &c. at 6 per Cent. may also be done for any Rate of Interest, by applying the Difference of the Rates (viz. x.) As directed in the First Section of this Chapter.

Now because that Rents and Annuities, &c. are usually paid either by Quarterly or Half Yearly Payments, and the Method of computing them by the Pen may be thought a little troublesome; I have inserted the following Tables of the Amounts of 1 l. for each, at 6 per Cent.

Half Years	Annuities of 11. at 6 per Cent. Compound Interest.	alf	Annuities of 1 l. at 6 per Cent. Compound Interest.	II alf	Annuities of 1 l. at 6 per Cent. Compound Interest.
1 2 3 4 5	1,0295630141 1,06 1,0613367949 1,1236 1,1568170026	11 12 13 14	1,3777875592 1,4185191122 1,4604548127 1,5036302590 1,5480821017	21 22 23 24 25	1,8437905523 1,8982985583 1,9544179853 2,0121964718 2,0716830644
6 7 8 9	1,191016 1,2262260228 1,26247696 1,2997995842 1,3382255776	16 17 18 19 20	1,5938480745 1,6409670276 1,6894789589 1,7394250493 1,7908476965	26 27 28 29 30	2,1329282601 2,1959840483 2,2609039557 2,3277430912 2,3965581001

Quarterly Amounts.

	Quarters of a Year $= t$.	Amounts of 11. at 6 per Cent. &c. Compound Interest.	Quarters of a Year = t.	Amounts of 11. at 6 per Cent. &c. Compound Interest.	Quarters of a Year = t.	Amounts of 11. at 6 per Cent. &c. Compound Interest,
	1 2 3 4 5	1,0146738461 1,0295630141 1,0446706634 1,06	21 22 23 24 25	1,3578024938 1,3777875592 1,3980050019 1,4185191122 1,4393342435	41 42 43 44 45	1,8171263199 1,8437905523 1,8708460509 1,8982985583 1,9261538989
-	6 7 8 9	1,0913367949 1,1073509032 1,1236 1,1400875335 1,1568170026	26 27 28 29 30	1,4604548127 1,4818853020 1,5036302590 1,5256942978 1,5480821017	46 47 48 49 50	1,9544179853 1,9830968140 2,0121964718 2,0417231330 2,0716830644
	11 12 13 14 15	1,1737919574 1,191016 1,2084927856 1,2262260228 1,2442194748	31 32 33 34 35	1,5707984203 1,5938480745 1,6172359557 1,6409670276' 1,6650463253	51 52 53 54 55	2,1020826228 2,1329282601 2,1642265211 2,1959840483 2,2282075801
	16 17 18 19 20	1,26247696 1,2810023527 1,2997995842 1,3188726433 1,3382255776	36 37 38 39 40	1,6894789589 1,7142701133 1,7394250493 1,7649491048 1,7908476965	56 57 58 59 60	2,2609039557 2,2940801123 2,3277430912 2,3619000349 2,3965581931

Either of these Tables may also be made useful for any proposed Rate of Interest; by making the $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ of the Difference of the Rate = x, &c.

As for Instance, suppose any of the aforesaid Questions about Annuities or Rents, &c. were to be computed at 8 per Cent. per Ann.

Then 1,08-1,06 = 0,02 = x for Yearly Payments; as before. Consequently 2) 0,02 (0,01 = x for Half Year's Payments.

Or 4) 0,02 (0,005 = x for Quarterly Payments.

Now these Values of x, although they are not really true, yet they may serve indifferently well for small Rents; as I have already said, Page 265. But if you would work exactly; Then $\sqrt{1,08} = 1,0392304845$, &c.

- V 1,06 = 1,0295680141, Vide Table, Page 272.

Difference = 0,0096624704 = x for Half Yearly Payments:

N n

And

And $\sqrt{1.08} = 1,0194263092$, &c.

 $- \checkmark : \checkmark$ 1,06 = 1,0146738461. See the Last Table.

Their Difference 0,0047524631 = x, for Quarterly Payments.

These are the true Values of x, which being involved with their respective Amounts (as before for Years, &c.) according as the Question requires, the Result will be the Answer at 8 per Cent. &c. The like may be done for any other Rate, either Greater

or Less than 6.

Now, although the Method used here (and in Page 257 and 258, &c.) be really true (by which the Tables calculated only for 6 per Cent. are made effectual for all Rates of Compound Interest) yet it was rather propos'd to shew what may possibly be performed by the Pen, without a great many Tables of several Rates, than intended for common Practice.

For it must needs be consessed, that Tables, calculated on Purpose for any designed Rate of Interest, are much more ready and useful in common Practice. And therefore since the Legislative Power hath thought sit to reduce the Rate of Interest, and hath settled it by an Act of Parliament, at 5 per Gent. I've therefore been at the Trouble (which was not a little) to calculate the sollowing Tables for that Rate; but don't think it convenient to take the Tables at 6 per Cent. out of the Book, because the Examples are all suited to them; and not only so, but they may be found useful in the taking of Leases for Houses, &c. For in those Cases, the Purchaser is allowed more Interest for his purchase Money, than the common Rate paid upon the Loan of Money.

Here

Here follow New Tables of the Amounts of one Pound at the Rate of 5 per Cent. per Annum Compound Interest. For Years, Half Years, Quarters, Months, and Days.

	I. The Table of the Yearly Amounts of 1 l. &c.										
Years = t.	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.		Years = t.	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.		Years = t.	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.				
1 2 3 4 5 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13	1,05 = R $ 1,1025 = RR $ $ 1,157625 = R3 $ $ 1,21550625 $ $ 1,27628156 $ $ 1,34009564 $ $ 1,40710042 $ $ 1,47745544 $ $ 1,55132822 $ $ 1,62889463 $ $ 1,71033936 $ $ 1,79585633 $ $ 1,88564914$		14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26	2,07892818 2,18287459 2,29201832 2,40661923 2,52695019		27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39	3,73345632 3,92012914 4,11613599 4,32194239 4,53803949 4,76494147 5,00318854 5,25334797 5,51601536 5,79181613 6,08140694 6,38547729 6,70475115				

	II. The Table of the Half Yearly Amounts of 1 l. &c.										
Half Yrs.	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.		Half Yrs.	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.		Half Yrs.	The Amounts of 1 /. &c.				
1 2 3 4 5	1,02469507 1,05 1,07592983 1,1025 1,12972632		11 12 13 14 15	1,30779943 1,34009;64 1,37318940 1,40710042 1,44184887		21 22 23 24 25	1,66912030 1,71033936 1,75257632 1,79585633 1,84020513				
6 7 8 9	1,57625 1,18621264 1,21550625 1,24552327 1,27628156		16 17 18 19 20	1,47745544 1,51394132 1,55132822 1,58963838 1,62889463		26 27 28 29 30	1,88564914 1,93221539 1,97993160 2,02882616 2,07892818				

III. The Table of the Quarterly Amounts of 1 l. &c.

Quarters .	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.	Quarters = t.	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.	Quarters = t.	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.
3 4 5	1,01227223 1,02,69507 1,03727037 1,05 1,06288585	21 22 23 24 25	1,29194439 1,30779943 1,32384905 1,34009564 1,35654161	41 42 43 44 45	1,64888480 1,66912031 1,68960414 1,71033936 1,73132904
6 7 8 9 10	1,07592983 1,08913389 1,1025 1,11503014 1,12972632	26 27 28 29 30	1,37318940 1,39004151 1,40710042 1,42436869 1,44184887	46 47 48 49 50	1,75257632 1,77408435 1,79585633 1,81789549 1,84020513
11 12 13 14 15	1,14359059 1,157625 1,17183164 1,18621264 1,20077012	31 32 33 34 35	1,45954358 1,47745544 1,49558712 1,51394132 1,53252076	51 52 53 54 55	1,86278856 1,88564914 1,90879027 1,93221539 1,95592799
16 17 18 19 20	1,21550625 1,23042323 1,24552327 1,26080862 1,27628156	36 37 38 39 40	1,55132822 1,57036648 1,58963838 1,60914680 1,62889463	56 57 58 59 60	1,97993160 2,00422978 2,02882616 2,05372439 2,07892818

	IV. The To	able	of the	Monthly Amo	ount.	s of I	. &c.
Months 1 2 3 4	The Amounts of 11. &c. 1,00407412 1,00816485 1,01227223 1,01639636		Months 56 78	The Amounts of 1 l. &c. 1,02053728 1,02469507 1,02886981 1,03306155		Months 900 11 12	The Amounts of 1 l. &c. 1,03727037 1,04149634 1,04573953 1,05

NOTE: The Amount of one Pound, for one Day, is 1,0001336807225, &c. (found as that in Page 260) but in the following Table, I take only Nine of those Figures, as being sufficient in Practice, for computing the Interest of any Sum not exceeding One Hundred Millions of Pounds.

V. The

V. The Table of the Daily Amounts of 1 l. &c.

					-		
HI	The	- 1	H	The		01	The
ays:	Amounts of	-1	Days	Amounts of		Day 1.	Amounts of
SS				1 l. &c.		SI	1 l. &c.
	1 l. &c.		11	1 τ. α		11	1 ε. α
							-
	1,00013368		36	1,00482376		71	1,00953587
2	1,00026738	-1	37	1,00495810		72	1,00967082
3	1,00040109	- 1	38	1,00509245		73	1,00980579
_	1,00053483	- 1	39	1,00522681		74	1,00994079
4	1,00066858	-1		1,00536119			1,01007579
5	1,00000050		40	1,005,50119		75	1,0:00/5/9
				1.00140510		-6	1.01001000
6	1,00080235		41	1,00549558		76	1,01021083
7 8	1,00093614		42	1,00563000		77	1,01034587
8	1,00106994		43	1,00576443		78	1,01048093
9	1,00120377		44	1,00589888		79	1,01061602
10	1,00133761		45	1,00603335		80	1,01075112
	337			3333		-	
110	1,00147147		46	1,00616784		81	1,01088623
12	1,00160535			1,00630234		82	1,01102137
			47				
13	1,00173924		48	1,00643687		83	1,01115652
14	1,00187315		49	1,00657141		84	1,01129169
15	1,00200708		50	1,00670597		85	1,01142688
-							
16	1,00214103		51	1,00684055		86	1,01156209
17	1,00227500		52	1,00697514		87	1,01169732
18	1,00240899		53	1,00710975	1	88	1,01183256
19	1,00254299			1,00724438		89	1,01196783
			54				
20	1,00267701		55	1,00737903		90	1,01210311
1-							
21	1,00281105		56	1,00751370		91	1,01223841
22	1,00294510		57	1,00764839		92	1,01237372
23	1,00307918		58	1,00778309		93	1,01250906
24	1,00321327		59	1,00791781		94	1,01264441
25	1,00334738	1	59	1,00805255		95	1,01277978
-	33173					- 77	
26	1,00348151		61	1,00818731		96	1,01291517
	1,00361565		62	1,00832208			1,01305058
27						97	
28	1,00374982		63	1,00845687		98	1,01318600
29	1,00388400		64	1,00859168	1	- 99	1,01332145
30	1,00401820	1	65	1,00872651		100	1,01345691
-	-						
31	1,00415242	1	66	1,00886136		101	1,01359239
32	1,00428665		67	1,00899623		102	1,01372788
33	1,00442091		68	1,00913111		103	1,01386340
34			69	1,00926601		104	1,01399893
35	1,00468947		70	1,00940093		105	1,01413448
23	7,554,5094/		1 /5	1,00940093	1	1 .03	1,5,4,5440
web sind a f.			•				Day

-					<u>-</u>		
0	The	1	1 0	The		U	The
ay	Amounts of		ays	Amounts of		ay t.	Amounts of
ays=	1 /. &c.		8	1 l. &c.		SI	
1 11	1 τ. α		11	17. α		11	1 l. &c.
106	1.01427005		146	1.01070775		186	1 0251515
1	1,01427005		146	1,01970775			1,02517459
107	1,01440564		147	1,01984406		187	1,02531164
108	1,01454125		148	1,01998039		188	1,02544870
109	1,01467687		1.49	1,02011675		189	1,02558578
110	1,01481252		150	1,02025312		190	1,02572288
-						-	
1111	1,01494818		151	1,02038950		191	1,02586000
112	1,01508386		152	1,02052591		192	1,02599714
113	1,01521955		153	1,02066234		193	1,02613430
114	1,01535527		154	1,02079878		194	1,02627147
115				1,02093524			1,02640866
1	1,01549100		155	1,02093,24	м	195	1,02040800
116	1,01562675		156	1,02107172		106	1,02654588
117				1,02120822		196	
	1,01576252		157			197	1,02668310
118	1,01589831		158	1,02134473		198	1,02682015
119	1,01603412		159	1,02148127		199	1,02695762
120	1,01616994		160	1,02161782		200	1,02709490
			-				
121	1,01630578		161	1,02175439		201	1,02723221
122	1,01644164		162	1,02189098		202	1,02736953
123	1,01657752		163	1,02202758		203	1,02750686
124	1,01671349		164	1,02216421		204	1,02764422
125	1,01684933	2	165	1,02230085			1,02778160
	1,01004953		105	1,022,0005		205	1,02//0100
126	1,01698527		166	1,02243751		206	1,02791899
127	1,01712122	•	167	1,02257419		207	1,02805640
128	1,01725719		168	1,02271089		208	1,02819384
129	1,01739317		169	1,02284761		209	1,02833129
130	1,01752918		170	1,02298434		210	1,02846875
-							06.6
131	1,01766521		171	1,02312109		211	1,02860624
132	1,01780125		172	1,02325787		212	1,02874375
133	1,01793731		173	1,02339466		213	1,02888127
134	1,01807338		174	1,02353147		214	1,02901881
135	1,01820948	-	175	1,02366829		215	1,02915637
	,,,,,,,,,,		-/3	7.2,000.09			
136	1,01834559		176	1,02380514		216	1,02929395
137	1,01848173		177	1,02394200		217	1,02943154
138						218	1,02956916
	1,01851788		178	1,02407888			
139	1,01875405		179	1,02421578		219	1,02970679
140	1,01889024		180	1,02435270		220	1,02984445
147	1.01000614		10-	1.02418061			1.02008016
141	1,01902644		181	1,02448954		221	1,02998212
142	1,01916267		182	1,02462659		222	1,03011980
143	1,01929891		183	1,02476356		223	1,03025751
144	1,01943517		184	1,02490055	1	224	1,03039524
145	1,01957145		185	1,02503756		225	1,03053298
			77 481	X 4	13 AL		
1						1	Days

Days

Da	The Amounts of		Days.	The Amounts of	Day	The Amounts of
ays=	Amounts of 1 l. &c.	I	. = 87	1 l. &c.	. = S.	1 l. &c.
226 227 228	1,03067074 1,03080852 1,03094632	ı	266 267 268 269	1,03619636 1,03633488 1,03647342 1,03661197	306 307 308 309	1,04175160 1,04189086 1,04203015 1,04216944
229	1,03108414	ı	270	1,03675055	310	1,04230876
231 232 233 234 235	1,03135983 1,03149770 1,03163559 1,03177350 1,03191143		271 272 273 274 275	1,03688914 1,03702775 1,03716638 1,03730503	311 312 313 314 315	1,04244810 1,04258245 1,04272683 1,04286622 1,04300563
236 237 238 239 240	1,03204938 1,03218734 1,03232533 1,03246333		276 277 278 279 280	1,03758239 1,03772109 1,03785982 1,03799856 1,03813732	316 317 318 319 320	1,04314506 1,04328451 1,04342397 1,04356346 1,04370297
241 242 243 244 245	1,03273939 1,03287744 1,03301552 1,03315361 1,03329173		281 282 283 284 285	1,03827609 1,03841489 1,03855371 1,03869254 1,03883139	321 322 323 324 325	1,04384249 1,04398203 1,04412159 1,04426117 1,04440077
246 247 248 249 250	1,03342986 1,03356801 1,03370617 1,03384436 1,03398157		286 287 288 289 290	1,03897027 1,03910916 1,03924817 1,03938699 1,03952594	326 327 328 329 330	1,04454038 1,044 6 8002 1,04481967 1,04495934 1,04509903
251 252 253 254 255	1,03412079 1,03425903 1,03439729 1,03453557 1,03467387		291 292 293 294 295	1,03966491 1,03980389 1,03994289 1,04008191 1,04022095	331 332 333 334 335	1,04523874 1,04537847 1,04551822 1,04565798 1,04579777
256 257 258 259 260	1,03481218 1,03495052 1,03508887 1,03522724 1,03536563		296 297 298 299 300	1,04036001 1,04049908 1,04063818 1,04077729 1,04091642	336 337 338 339 340	1,04593757 1,04607739 1,04621723 1,04635709 1,04649697
261 262 263 264 265	1,03550404 1,03564247 1,03578091 1,03591938 1,03605786		301 302 303 304 305	1,04105557 1,04119474 1,04133393 1,04147314 1,04161236	341 342 343 344 345	1,04663686 1,04677678 1,04691671 1,04705667 1,04719664

Days=	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.	Days=	The Amounts of 1 l. &c.	Days=	The Amounts of 1 % &c.
346 347 348 349 350 351 352	1,04733663 1,04747664 1,04761666 1,04775671 1,04789677 1,04803686 1,04817696	353 354 355 356 357 358 359	i,04831708 i,04845722 i,04859738 i,04873756 i,04887775 i,04901797 i,04915820	360 361 362 363 364 365 366	1,04929845 1,04943872 1,04957901 1,04971932 1,04985965 1,04999999

I think it is needless to say any Thing of the Use of these Tables, because I take it for granted, that whoever understands the Work of the foregoing Examples, at 6 per Cent. cannot but know how to make Use of these Tables at 5 per Cent. as Occasion requires.

Thus far concerning Annuities, or Leases, &c. that are limited by any assigned Time; and 'tis only such that can be computed by Theorems or certain Rules. However, it may not perhaps be unacceptable, to insert a brief Account of some Estimates that have been reasonably made, by two very ingenious Persons, about the Proportion or Difference of Mens Lives, according to their several Ages; which may be of good Use in computing the Values of Annuities,

or taking of Leases for Lives, &c.

Sir William Petty, in his Discourse made before the Royal Society (Anno 1674) concerning the Use of Duplicate Proportion, in the Life of Man and its Duration, saith, that it's found by Experience there are more Persons living of between 16 and 26 Years Old, than of any other Age or Decade of Years in the whole Life of Man (viz. 70 or 80 Years.) His Reason for that Assertion I shall omit; but supposing it true, he thence infers, that the Roots of every Number of Mens Ages under 16 (whose Root is 4) compared with the said Number 4, doth shew the Proportion of the Likelihood of such Mens reaching the Age of 70 Years.

As for Example, 'tis 4 Times more likely, that one of 16 Years Old should live to 70, than a New-born Babe: 'Tis 3 Times more likely, that one of 9 Years Old should attain the Age of 70, than

the faid Infant, &c.

On the other Hand, 'tis 5 to 4, that one of 25 Year's Old will die before one of 16: And 6 to 5, that one of 36 will die before one of 25. And so on according to the Roots of any other declining Age, compared with the (4,6) the Root of 21, which is the Year of Perfection according to the Sense of our Law, and the Age for whose Life a Lease is most valuable.

2. The

2. The ingenious and great Mathematician, Doctor Edmund Halley (in Philosoph. Transact. Numb. 196) doth, with great Industry and Skill, draw an Estimate of the Proportion of Mens Lives, from the Monthly Tables of the Births and Funerals in Breslaw, the Capital City of the Province of Silesia; or, as the Germans call it, Schlesia. Whence he proves that it's 80 to 1, a Person of 25 Years Old will not die in a Year: That it is 51 to 1, that a Man of 40 will live 7 Years: That a Man of 30 Years Old may reasonably expect to live 27 or 28 Years, &c.

Now from these and the like Proportions (he justly infers) that the Price of Insurance upon Lives ought to be regulated, there being a great Difference between the Life of a Man of 20, and one of 50. For Example: 'Tis 100 to 1, that a Man of 20 dies not in a Year, and but 38 to I, for a Man of 50 Years of Age. upon these also depends the Valuation of Annuities for Lives; for it is plain, that the Purchaser ought to pay only such a Part of the Value of any Annuity, as he hath Chances that he is living.

And for that Purpose he hath taken the Pains (which was not a little) to compute the following Table (that shews the Value of Annuities) for every Fifth Year of Age to the 70th.

Age Year's Purch	ase. Age	Year's Purchase.	Age	Year's Purchase.
1 10,28	25	12,27	50	9,21
5 13,40	30	11,72	55	8,51
10 13,44	35	11,12	60	7,60
15 13,33	40	10,57	65	6,54
20 12,78	45	9,91	70	5,32

The same ingenious Gentleman proceeds on, and shews how to estimate or find the Value of Two Lives, and then of Three Lives, which being too long a Discourse to be recited here, I have, for Brevity's Sake, omitted it; and shall only add this serious Observation,

Viz. How unjustly we repine at the Shortness of our Lives, and think ourselves wrong'd if we attain not to Old Age; whereas it appears, that the One Half of those, that are BORN, die in Seventeen Years Time. For by the aforesaid Bills of Mortality at Breslaw, it was found, that 1238 were in that Time reduced to 616. So that, instead of murmuring at what we call a Short Life, we ought to account it as a great Bleffing that we have furviv'd, perhaps by many Years, that Period of Life whereat the one Half of the whole Race of Mankind does not arrive.

Sett. 4.

Sect. 4. Of Purchasing Freeshold, or Real Chates; at Compound Interest.

All Free-hold or Real Estates, are supposed to be purchased or bought to continue for ever (viz. without any limited Time); therefore the Business of computing the true Value of such Estates is grounded upon a Rank or Series of Geometrical Proportions continually

decreasing, ad Infinitum:

Thus, let P, u, R, denote the same Data as in the last Section. Then the Series will be, $\frac{u}{R}$, $\frac{u}{RR}$, $\frac{u}{R^3}$, $\frac{u}{R^4}$, $\frac{u}{R^5}$, and so on in \vdots until the last Term = 0. Then will P = 0 (viz. P) be the sum of all the Antecedents. And $P = \frac{u}{R}$ will be the Sum of all the Consequents; therefore it will be $u : \frac{u}{R} :: P : P = \frac{u}{R}$ which produces PR = u = P.

This Equation affords the following Theorems.

Theorem 1.
$$PR - P \equiv u$$
. Theorem 2. $\left\{ \frac{u}{R-1} = P \right\}$.

Theorem 3. $\left\{ \frac{P+u}{P} = R \right\}$.

Example. Suppose a Free-hold Estate of 75 l. Yearly Rent were to be sold; what is it worth, allowing the Buyer 6 per Cent. &c. Compound Interest for his Money?

In this Question there is given u = 75. R = 1,06 to find P. Per Theorem 2. Thus R - 1 = 0,006) 75 = u (1250 l = P. the Answer required. And so on for any of the rest, as Occasion requires. But if the Rent is to be paid, either by Quarterly or Half Yearly Payments;

Then
$$R = \sqrt{1.06}$$
 for Half Yearly And $R = \sqrt{1.06}$ for Quarterly Payments at 6 per Cent.

Or
$$\begin{cases} R = 1,08 & \text{for Yearly} \\ R = \sqrt{1,08} & \text{for Half Yearly} \end{cases}$$
 Payments at 8 per Cent.
$$R = \sqrt{1,08} & \text{for Quarterly}$$

The like is to be understood for any other proposed Rate of Interest, either greater or less than 6 per Cent.

The Application of these Theorems to Practice is so very easy,

that it's needless to insert more Examples.

AN

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

Mathematicks.

PART III.

CHAP. I.

Of Geometrical Definitions, &c.

Sect. 1. Of Lines and Angles.

POINT bath no Parts: That is, a Geometrieal Point is not any Quantity, but only an assignable Place in any Quantity, denoted by a Point: As at A. and B.

B.

Such a Place may be conceived so infinitely small, as to be void of Length, Breadth, and Thickness; and therefore a Point may be said to have no Parts.

2. A LINE is called a Quantity of one Dimension, because it may have any supposed Length, but no Breadth nor Thickness, being made or represented to the Eye, by the Motion of a Point.

That is, if the Point at A, be moved (upon the same Plane) to the Point at B, it will describe a Line either right or circular (viz. crooked) according to its Motion.

Therefore the Ends or Limits of a Line are Points.

3. A RIGHT LINE, is that Line which lieth even or Araight betwixt those Points that limit its Length, being the shortest Line that can be drawn between any Two Points. As the Line AB.

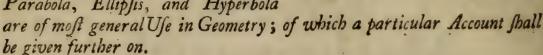
Therefore, between any two Points, there can lie or be drawn but one right Line.

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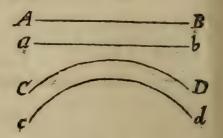
4. A CIRCULAR, crooked or OBLIQUE Line, is that which

lies bending between those Points which limit its Length, as the Lines GD or FG, &c.

Of these Kinds of Lines there are various Sorts; but those of the Circle, Parabola, Ellipsis, and Hyperbola

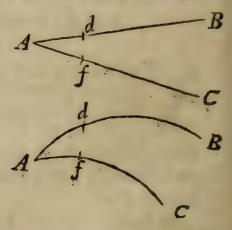


5. PARALLEL LINES, are those that lie equally distant from one another in all their Parts, viz. such Lines as being infinitely extended (upon the same Plane) will never meet: As the Lines AB and ab: or CD and cd.



6. LINES not PARALLEL, but INCLINING (viz. leaning) one

towards another, whether they are Right Lines, or Circular Lines, will (if they are extended) meet and make an Angle; the Point where they meet is called the Angular Point, as at A. And according as such Lines stand, nearer or further off each other, the Angle is said to be lesser or greater, whether the Lines that include the Angle be long or short. That is, the Lines Ad and Af include



the same Angle as AB and AC doth; notwithstanding that AB is longer than Ad, &c.

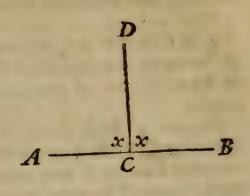
7. All ANGLES including between Right Lines are called Right-lin'd Angles; and those included between Circular Lines are called Spherical Angles. But all Angles, whether Right-lin'd or Spherical, fall under one of these Three Denominations.

Viz. {An Ditute Angle. An Acute Angle.

8. A RIGHT-ANGLE is that which is included betwixt Two Lines, that meet one another Perpendicularly.

That

That is, when a Right Line, as DC, meets with another Right-Line, as AB, so directly as that it neither inclines nor declines to one Side more than the other, but make the Angles on both Sides of it equal, as at x, x; then are those Angles called Right-Angles; and the Lines so meeting are said to be Perpendicular to each other.



That is, AC, and CB, are Perpendicular to DC, as well as

D, C is to either or both of them.

9. An OBTUSE ANGLE is that which is greater than a Right Angle. Such is the Angle included between the Lines AC and GB.

10. An Acute Angle is that which is less than a Right Angle: As the Angle included between the Lines CB and CD.

These Two Angles are generally called OBLIQUE Angles.

Sect. 2. Of a Circle, &c.

Before a Circle and its Parts are defined, it will be convenient to

give a brief Account of Superficies in general.

1. A SUPERFICIES or SURFACE is the Upper, or very Out-side of any visible Thing. But by Superficies in GEOMETRY, is meant only so much of the Out-side of any Thing as is inclosed within a Line or Lines, according to the Form or Figure of the Thing designed; and it is produced or formed by the Motion of a Line, as a Line is described by the Motion of a Point; thus:

Suppose the Line AB were equally moved (upon the same Plane) to CD; then will the Points at A and B describe the two Lines AC and BD; and by so doing they

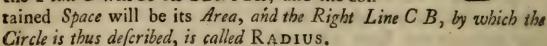


will form (and inclose) the Superficies or Figure ABCD, being a Quantity of Two Dimensions, viz. it hath Length and Breadth, but not Thickness. Consequently the Bounds or Limits of a Superficies are Lines. Note, Note, The Superficies of any Figure, is usually called its AREA:

2. A CIRCLE is a plain regular Figure, whose Area is bounded or limited by one continued Line, called the CIRCUMFERENCE or PERIPHERY of the Circle, which may be thus described or drawn.

Suppose a Right Line, as CB, to have one of its Extream

Points, as C, so fix'd upon any Plane, as that the other Point at B may move about it; then if the Point at B be moved round about (upon the same Plane) it will describe a Line equally distant in all its Parts from the Point C, which will be the Circumference or Periphery of that Circle; the Point C will be its CENTER, and the con-



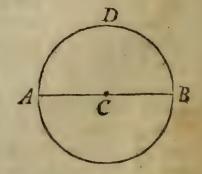
Consectary.

From hence 'tis evident, that an infinite Number of Right Lines may be drawn from the Center of any Circle to touch its Periphery, which will be all equal to one another, because they are all Radius's. And with a little Consideration it will be easy to conceive, that no more than two equal Right Lines can be drawn from any Point within a Circle to touch its Periphery, but from the Genter only. (9. 8.3.)

3. EQUAL CIRCLES are those which have equal Radius's; for it's plain by the last Definition, that one and the same Radius (as GB) must needs describe equal Circles, how many soever they are.

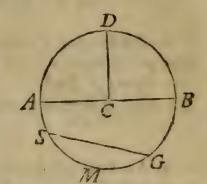
4. The Diameter of a Circle, is twice its Radius joined into one Right Line; as AB drawn through the Center C, and ending at the Periphery on each Side.

That is the Diameter divides the Gircle into Two equal Parts.



5. A Semicircle (viz. Half a Circle) is a Figure included between the Diameter, and Half the Periphery cut off by the Diameter; as ADB.

6. A QUADRANT is Half a Semicircle, viz. one Quarter of a Circle; and 'tis made by the Radius (as D C) standing Perpendicular upon the Diameter at the Center C, cutting the Periphery of the Semicircle in the Middle, as at D. Therefore a Quadrant, or half the Semicircle, is the Measure of a Right Angle.



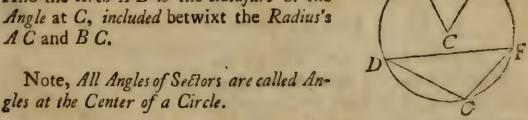
7. A CHORD LINE, or the Subtense of an Arch, is any Right Line that cuts

the Circle into Two unequal Parts, as the Line SG; and is always less than the Diameter.

8. A SEGMENT of a Circle, is a Figure included betwixt the Chord and that Arch of the Periphery which is cut off by the Chord: And it may either be greater or less than a Semicircle; as the Figure SDG, or SMG.

Q. A SECTOR is a Figure included between Two Radius's of the Circle, and that Arch of its Periphery where they touch, as the Figure A C B: And the Arch AB is the Measure of the

A C and B C.



10. An ANGLE in the Segment of a Circle is that which is included between Two Chords that flow from one and the same Point in the Periphery, as at D, and meet with the Ends of another Chord Line, as at F and G.

That is, the Angles at D, at F and at G, are called Angles at the Periphery, or Angles standing on the Segment of a Circle.

Sect. 3. Of TRIANGLES.

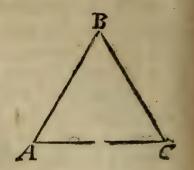
There are two Kinds of Triangles, viz. Plain and Spherical; but I shall not give any Definition of the Spherical, because they more immediately relate to Astronomy.

I. A PLAIN TRIANGLE is a Figure whose Area is contained within the Limits of Three Right Lines called Sides, including Three Angles: And it may be divided, and takes its Name, either according to its Sides or Angles.

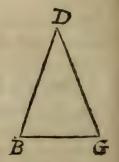
I. By its SIDES.

2. An Equilateral Triangle is that which hath all its Three Sides equal; as the Figure ABC.

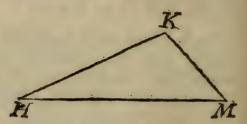
That is, AB=BC=AC.



3. An Isosceles Triangle, is that which hath only Two of its Sides equal, as the Figure BDG: That is, $BD \equiv DG$; but the Third Side BG may be either greater or less, as Occafion requires.

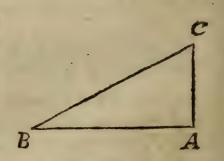


4. A SCALENE TRIANGLE, is that which hath all its Three Sides unequal; fuch as the Figure HKM.



2. By its Angles.

5. A RIGHT-ANGLED Triangle, is that which hath one Right Angle; that is, when Two of its Sides are Perpendicular to each other, as C A is supposed to be to B A. Therefore the Angle at A, is a Right Angle, per Defin. 8. Sect. 1.



Note, The langest Side of every Right-angled Triangle (as BC) is called the Hypothenuse, and the langest of the other Two Sides which include the Right Angle (as BA) is called the Base: The Third Side (as CA) is called the Cathetus or Perpendicular,

6. An OBTUSE-ANGLED Triangle, is that which hath one of its Angles Obtuse, and it's called an Amblygonium Triangle. Such is the Third Triangle HKM.

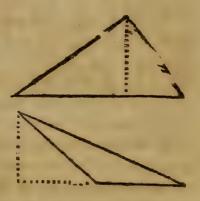
7. An Acute-Angled Triangle, is that which hath all its Angles Acute, and it's called an Oxygonium Triangle; such are the First and Second Triangles ABC and BDG.

Note, All Triangles that have not a Right Angle, whether they are Acute, or Obtuse, are, in general Terms, called Oblique Triangles,

gles, without any other Distinction, as before. And the longest Side of every oblique Triangle is usually called the Base; the other two are

only called Sides or Legs.

8. The ALTITUDE or HEIGHT of any Plain Triangle, is the Length of a Right Line let fall perpendicular from any of its Angles, upon the Side opposite to that Angle from whence it falls; and may be either within, or without the Triangle, as Occasion requires, being denoted by the Two prick'd Lines, in the annexed Triangles.



Sect. 4. Of Four- aded Figures.

1. A SQUARE is a plain regular Figure, whose Area is limited by Four equal Sides

all perpendicular one to another.

That is, when AB = BC = CD = DA, and the Angles A, B, C, D are all equal, then it's usually called a Geometrical Square.

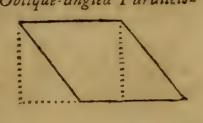
2. A RHOMBUS; or Diamond-like Figure, is that which hath Four equal Sides, but no Right-angle. That is, a Rhombus is a Square mov'd out of its right Position, as the annexed Figure.



3. A RECTANGLE, or a Right-angled Parallelogram (often called an Oblong, or long Square) is a Figure that hath four Right-angles and its two opposite Sides equal, viz. $BC \equiv HD \equiv \text{and } BH \equiv CD.$

4. A RHOMBOIDES, is an Oblique-angled Parallelogram; that is, it is a Parallelogram moved out of its right. Position, like the annexed Fi-

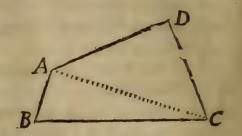
gure. 5. The ALTITUDE or Height of any Oblique angled Parallelogram, viz. either of the Rhombus or Rhomboides, is a Right-line let fall perpendicular from any Angle upon the Side opposite to that Angle; and may either be within or without the Figure: As the prick'd Lines in the annexed Figure.



6. Every

6. Every Four-sided Figure, different from those before-mentioned, or is called a TRAPEZIUM.

That is, when it has neither opposite Sides, nor opposite Angles equal; as the Figure ABCD.



7. A Right-line, drawn from any Angle in a Four-sided Figure to its opposite Angle, is called a DIAGONAL Line, and will divide the Area of the Figure into two Triangles, being denoted by the prick'd Line AC in the last Figure.

8. All Right-lin'd Figures, that have more than four Sides, are

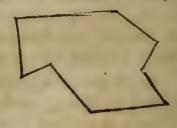
call'd Polygons, whether they be regular or irregular.

9. A REGULAR POLYGON is that which hath all its Sides equal, standing at equal Angles, and is named according to the Number of its Sides (or Angles). That is, if it have five equal Sides, it is called a PENTAGON; if fix equal Sides, it is call'd a HEXAGON; if feven, 'tis a HEPTAGON; if eight, 'tis an Octagon, &c.

Note, All Regular Polygons may be inscrib'd in a Circle; that is, their Angular Points, how many soever they have, will all just touch the Circle's Periphery.

10. An IRREGULAR POLYGON is that Figure which hath many

unequal Sides standing at unequal Angles (like unto the annexed Figure, or otherwise); and of such Kind of Polygons there are infinite Varieties, but they may all be reduced to regular Figures by drawing Diagonal Lines in them; as shall be shew'd farther on.



These are the most general and useful Definitions that concern plain or superficial Geometry.

As for those which relate to Solids, I thought it convenient to omit giving any Account of them in this Place, because they would rather puzzle and amuse the Learner, than improve him, until he has gain'd a competent Knowledge in the most useful Theorems concerning Superficies; for then those Definitions may be more easily understood, and will help him to form a clearer Idea of their respective Solids, than 'tis possible to conceive of them before; and therefore I have reserved those Definitions until we come to the Fifth Part.

Sect. 5. Of such Terms as are generally used in Geometry.

Whatsoever is proposed in Geometry will either be a PROBLEM or a THEOREM.

Both which Euclid includes in the general Term of Proposition.

A PROBLEM is that which proposes something to be done, and relates more immediately to practical than speculative Geometry; That is, it's generally of such a Nature, as to be performed by some known or Commonly-receiv'd Rules, without any Regard had to their Inventions or Demonstrations.

A THEOREM is when any Commonly-receiv'd Rule, or any New Proposition is required to be demonstrated, that so it may from thence forward become a certain Rule, to be rely'd upon in Practice when Occasion requires it. And therefore several Rules are often call'd Theorems, by which Operations in Arithmetick, and Conclusions in Geometry, are perform'd.

Note, By Demonstration is understood the highest Degree of Proof that human Reason is capable of attaining to, by a Train of Arguments deduced or drawn from such plain Axioms, and other Self-evident Truths, as cannot be denied by any one that considers

them.

A COROLLARY, or CONSECTARY, is some Consequent Truth

drawn or gain'd from any Demonstration.

A LEMMA is the Demonstration of some Premises laid down or proposed as preparative to obviate and shorten the Proof of the Theorem under Consideration.

A Scholium is a brief Commentary or Observation made a pon some precedent Discourse.

N.B. I advise the young Geometer to be very perfect in the Definitions, viz. Not to rest satisfied with a bare Remembrance of them; but, that he endeavour to gain a clear Idea or Understanding of the Things defined; and for that Reason I have been fuller in every Definition than is usual.

And, that he may know from whence most of the following Problems and Theorems contain'd in the Two next Chapters are collected, I have all along cited the Proposition and Book of Euclid's Elements where

they may be found.

As for Instance; at Problem 1. there is (3 e. 1.) which shews that it is the Third Proposition in Euclid's First Book. The like must be understood in the Theorems.

CHAP. II.

The First Kudiments, or Leading and Preparatory Problems, in Plain Geometry.

IN order to perform the following Problems, the young Geometer ought to be provided with a thin streight Ruler, made either of Brass or Box-wood, and two Pair of very good Compasses, viz. one Pair call'd Three-pointed Compasses, being very useful for drawing of Figures or Schemes, either with Black Lead or Ink; and one Pair of plain Compasses with very fine Points, to measure and set off Distances; also he should have a very good Steel Drawing Pen: And then he may proceed to the Work with this Caution; that he ought to make himself Master of one Problem before he undertakes the next: That is, he ought to understand the Design, and, as far as he can, the Reason of every Problem, as well as how to do it; and then a little Practice will render them very easy, they being all grounded upon these following Postulates.

Poculates or Petitions.

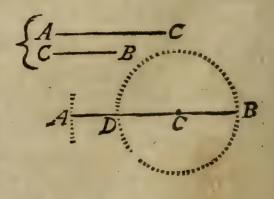
- 1. That a Right-line may be drawn from any one given Point to another.
- 2. That a Right-line may be produced, increased, or made longer from either of its Ends.
- 3. That upon any given Point (or Center) and with any given Distance (viz. with any RADIUS) a Circle may be described.

PROBLEM I.

Two Right-lines being given, to find their Sum and Difference. (3. e. 1.)

Let the given Lines be

Make the shortest Line, as CB, Radius, and with it describe a Circle: From its Center C set off the other Line AC, and join ACB with a Right-line. Then will AB = AC + CB; and AD = AC - CB; as was required.

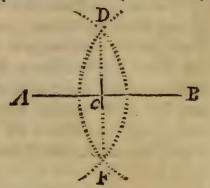


PROBLEM II.

To bisect, or divide a Right-line given (as AB) into two equal Parts (10. e. I.)

From both Ends of the given Line (viz. A and B) with any

Radius greater than half its Length, describe Two Arches that may cross each other in two Points, as at D and F; then join those Points D F with a Right-line, and it will bisect the Line AB in the Middle at C; viz. it will make AC = CB; as was required.

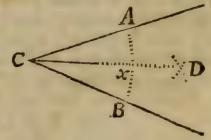


PROBLEM III.

To bisect a Right-lin'd Angle given, into two equal Angles. (9. e. I.)

Upon the Angular Point, as at C, with any convenient Radius, describe an Arch as AB; and from those Points A and B, describe two equal Arches croffing each other, as at D; then join the Points C and D with a Right-line, and it will bifeet the Arch AB, and confequently

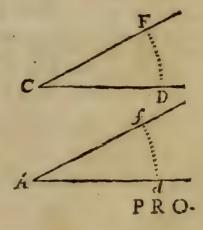
the Angle; as was requir'd.



PROBLEM IV.

At a Point A, in a Right-line given AB, to make a Right-lin'd Angle equal to a Right-lined Angle given C. (23. e. 1.)

Upon the given Angular Point C describe an Arch, as FD, (making C D any Radius at Pleasure) and with the same Radius describe the like Arch upon the given Point A, as fd; that is, make the Arch f d equal to the Arch FD; Then join the Points A and f with a Right-line, and it will form the Angle requir'd.

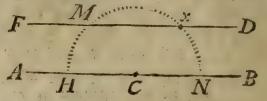


PROBLEM V.

To draw a Right-line, as F D, parallel to a given Right-line A B, that shall pass thro' any assign'd Point, as at x, viz. at any Distance required. (31. e. 1.)

Take any convenient Point in the given Line, as at C, (the

farther off x the better;) make $C \times Radius$, and with it upon the Point C, describe a Semicircle, as $H M \times N$; then make the Arch H M equal to the Arch



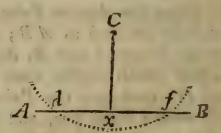
x N; thro' the Points M and x draw the Right-line F D, and it will be parallel to the Line AC, as was requir'd.

PROBLEM VI.

To let fall a Perpendicular, as Cx, upon a given Right-line AB, from any affign'd Point that is not in it, as from C. (12. 8. 1.)

Upon the given Point C describe such an Arch of a Circle as

will cross the given Line AB in two Points, as at d and f; Then bisect the Distance between those two Points d f (per Probl. 2.) as at x. Draw the Right-line Cx, and it will be the Perpendicular requir'd.

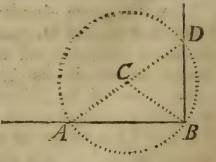


PROBLEM VII.

To erect or raise a Perpendicular upon the End of any given Right-line, as at B; or upon any other Point assign'd in it. (11. e. 1.)

Upon any Point (taken at an Adventure) out of the given

Line, as at C, describe such a Circle as will pass through the Point from whence the Perpendicular must be raised, as at B, (viz. make C B Radius): And from the Point where the Circle cuts the given Line, as at A, draw the Circle's Diameter A C D; then from the Point D draw the



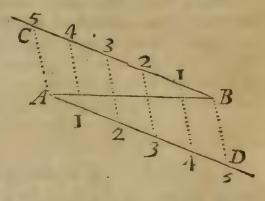
Right-line DB, and it will be the Perpendicular as was requir'd.

PROBLEM VIII.

To divide any given Right-line, as AB, into any proposed Number of equal Parts. (10. e. 6.)

At the extream Points (or Ends) of the given Line, as at A and

B, make two equal Angles (by Prob. 4.) continuing their Sides AD and BC to any sufficient Length; then upon those Sides, beginning at the Points A and B, set off the proposed Number of equal Parts (suppose 'em 5.) If Right-lines be drawn (cross the given Line) from one Point to the other, as in the annexed



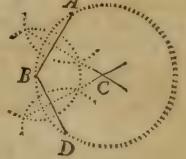
Figure, those Lines will divide the given Line AB into the Number of equal Parts required.

PROBLEM IX.

To describe a Circle that shall pass (or cut) thro' any Three Points given, not lying in a Right-line, as at the Points

Join the Points AB and BD with Right-lines; then bisect both those Lines (per Problem 2.) the Point where the bisecting Lines meet, as at C, will be the Center of the Circle required.

The Work of this Problem being well understood, 'twill be easy to perform the two following, without any Scheme, viz.



I. To find the Center of any Circle given. (1. e. 3.)

By the last Problem 'tis plain, that if three Points be any where taken in the given Circle's Periphery, as at A, B, D, the Center of that Circle may be found as before.

2. If a Segment of any Circle be given, to compleat or describe the whole Circle.

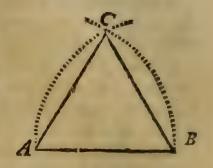
This may be done by taking any three Points in the given Segment's Arch, and then proceed as before.

PRO-

PROBLEM X.

Upon a Right-line given, as A B, to describe an Equilateral Triangle.
(1. e. 1.)

Make the given Line Radius, and with it, upon each of its extream Points or Ends, as at A and B, describe an Arch, viz. A C and B C; then join the Points A C and B C with Right-lines, and they will make the Triangle requir'd.

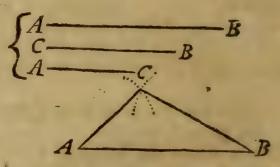


PROBLEM XI.

Three Right-lines being given, to form them into a Triangle, (provided any two of them, taken together, be longer than the Third)
(22. e. I.)

Let the given Lines be

Make either of the shorter Lines (as AC) Radius, and upon either End of the longest Line (as at A) describe an Arch;



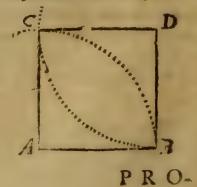
then make the other Line C B Radius, and upon the other End of the longest Side (as at B) describe another Arch, to cross the First Arch (as at C): Join the Points C A and C B with Right-lines, and they will form the Triangle required.

PROBLEM XII.

Upon a given Right-line, as AB, to form a Square. (46. e. 1.)

Upon one End of the given Line, as at B, erect the Perpendi-

cular B D, equal in Length with the given Line, viz. make B D = AB; that being done, make the given Line Radius, and upon the Points A and D describe equal Arches to cross each other, as at C; then join the Points C A and C D with Right-lines, and they will form the Square required.

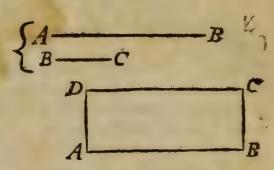


PROBLÉM XIII.

Two unequal Right-lines being given, to form or make of them a Rightangled Parallelogram.

Let the given Lines be

Upon one End of the longest Line, as at B, erect a Perpendicular of the same Length with the shortest Line B C; then from the Point C draw a Line parallel



and of the same Length, to AB; viz. make DC = AB! Join D A with a Right-line, and it will form the Oblong or Parallelogram required.

As for Rhombus's and Rhomboides's, to wit, Oblique angled Parallelograms, they are made, or describ'd, after the same Manner with the two last Figures; only instead of erecting the Perpendiculars, you must set off their given Angles, and then proceed to draw their Sides parallel, &c. as before.

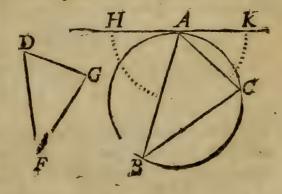
PROBLEM XIV.

In any given Circle, to inscribe or make a Triangle, whose Angles shall be equal to the Angles of a given Triangle; as the Triangle F D G, (2. e. 4.)

Note, Any Right-lin'd Figure is said to be inscrib'd in a Circle, when all the Angular Points of that Figure do just touch the Circle's Periphery.

Draw any Right-line (as H K) so as just to touch the Circle,

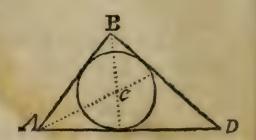
as at A; then make the Angle KAC equal to any one Angle of the given Triangle, as DFG; and the Angle HAB equal to another Angle of the Triangle, as DGF; then will the Angle BAG be equal to the Angle FDG. Join the Points B and C with a Right-line, and 'twill form the Triangle required.



PROBLEM XV.

In any given Triangle, as ABD, to describe a Circle that shall touch all its Sides. (4.e.4.)

Bisect any two Angles of the Triangle, as A and B, and where the bisecting Lines meet (as at C) will be the Center of the Circle required; and its Radius will be the nearest Distance to the Sides of the Triangle.



PROBLEM XVI.

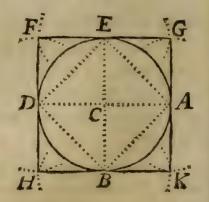
To describe a Circle about any given Triangle. (5. e. 4.)

This Problem is perform'd in all Respects like the Ninth, viz. by bisecting any Two Sides of the given Triangle; the Point, where those bisecting Lines meet, will be the Center of the Circle required.

PROBLEM XVII.

To describe a Square about any given Circle. (7. e. 4.)

Draw two Diameters in the given Circle (as D A and E B) crossing at Right Angles in the Center C; and, with the Circle's Radius C A, describe from the extream Points of those Diameters, viz A, B, D, E, cross Arches, as at F, G, H, K; then join those Points where the Arches cross with Right-lines, and they will form the Square required.



PROBLEM XVIII.

In any given Circle, to describe the largest Square it can contain.

(6. e. 4.)

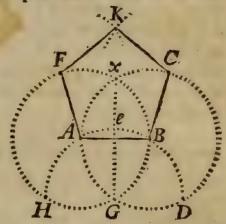
Having drawn the Diameters, as D A and E B, bisecting each other at Right-angles in the Center C, (as in the last Scheme); then join the Points A, B, D, and E, with Right-lines, viz. AB, BD, DE, E A, and they will be Sides of the Square required.

PROBLEM XIX.

Upon any given Right line, as A B, to describe a regular Pentagon, or Five-sided Polygon.

Make the given Line Radius, and upon each End of it de-

fcribe a Circle; and through those Points where the Circles cross each other (as at G(x)) draw the Rightline G(x): Upon the Point G(x) with the same Radius describe the Arch G(x) and laying a Ruler upon the Points G(x), and laying a Ruler upon the Points G(x), as at G(x), and mark where it crosses the other Circle, as at G(x). Then from



the Points F and C (with the fame Radius as before) describe cross Arches, as at K: Join the Points AF, FK, KC, and CB, with Right-lines, and they will form the Pentagon required, viz, AF = FK = KC = CB = AB; and the Angles at A, B, C, K, F will be equal.

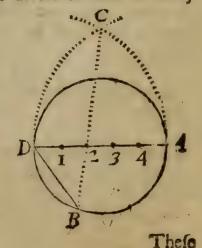
PROBLEM XX.

In any given Circle, to describe a regular Pentagon.
(11. e. 4. & 10. e. 3.)

Or, in general Terms, to describe any regular Polygon in a Circle.

Draw the Circle's Diameter D A, and divide it into as many

equal Parts as the proposed Polygon hath Sides; then make the whole Diameter a Radius, and describe the two Arches C A and C D. If a Right-line be drawn from the Point C, through the Second of those equal Parts in the Diameter, as at 2, it will assign a Point in the opposite Semicircle's Periphery, as at B. Join D B with a Right-line, and it will be the Side of the Pentagon required.



Q92

These Twenty Problems are sufficient to exercise the young Practitioner, and bring his Hand to the right Management of a Ruler and Compasses, wherein I would advise him to be very ready and exact.

As to the Reason why such Lines must be so drawn as directed at each Problem, that, I presume, will sully and clearly appear from the sollowing Theorems; and therefore I have (for Brevity's Sake) omitted giving any Demonstrations of them in this Chapter, desiring the Learner to be satisfied with the bare Knowledge of doing them only, until he hath fully considered the Contents of the next Chapter; and then I doubt not but all will appear very plain and easy.

CHAP. III.

A Collection of most useful Theorems in plain Geometry Demonstrated.

Note, In order to shorten several of the following Demonstrations, it will be necessary to premise, that

- THE Periphery (or Circumference) of every Circle (whether great or small) is supposed to be divided into 360 equal Parts, called Degrees; and every one of those Degrees are divided into 60 equal Parts, called Minutes, &c.
- 2. All Angles are measured by the Arch of a Circle describ'd upon the Angular Point (See Defin. 9. Page 287.) and are esteem'd greater or less, according to the Number of Degrees contain'd in that Arch.
- 3, A Quadrant, or Quarter-part of any Circle, is always 90 Degrees, being the Measure of a Right-angle (Defin. 6. P. 287.) and a Semicircle is 180 Degrees, being the Measure of two Right-angles.
- 4. Equal Arches of a Circle, or of equal Circles, measure equal Angles.

To those five general Axioms already laid down in Page 146, swhich I here suppose the Reader to be very well acquainted with) it will be convenient to understand these following, which begin their Number where the other ended.

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Arioms.

6. Every whole Thing is GREATER than its PART.

That is, the whole Line AB is

greater than its Part Ac, &c. SA _______ B

The same is to be understood of Superficies's and Solids.

7. Every Whole is EQUAL to all its PARTS taken together. That is, the whole Line AB is equal c d eto its Parts AC + cd + de + eB. A-|-|-B The fame is also true in Superficies's and Solids.

8. Those Things which being laid one upon another, do agree or meet in all their Parts, are equal one to the other.

But the Converse of this Axiom, to wit, that equal Things being laid one upon the other will meet, is only true in Lines and Angles, but not in Superficies's, unless they be alike, viz. of the same Figure or Form: As for Instance, a Circle may be equal in Area to a Square; but if they are laid one upon the other, 'tis plain they cannot meet in all their Parts, because they are unlike Figures. Also, a Parallelogram and a Triangle may be equal in their Area's one to another, and both of them may be equal to a Square; but if they are laid one upon the other, they will not meet in all their Parts, &c.

Note, Besides the Characters already explain'd in Part I, and in other Places of this Tract, these following are added.

Viz. \neg denotes an Angle in general, and \neg fignifies Angles; \triangle fignifies a Triangle; \square fignifies a Square, and \square denotes a Parallelogram. And when an Angle is denoted by any three Letters (as, A B C) the middle Letter (as B) always denotes the Angular Point; and the other two Letters (as A B and B C) denote the Lines or Sides of the Triangle which includes

that Angle.

These Things being premised, the young Geometer may proceed to the Demonstrations of the following Theorems; wherein he may perceive an absolute Necessity of being well versed in several Things that have been already deliver'd: And also it will be very advantageous to store up several useful Corollaries and Lemma's, as they become discover'd Truths: For it often happens, that a Proposition cannot be clearly demonstrated a priori, or of itself, without a great Deal of Trouble; therefore it will be useful to have Recourse to those Truths that may be assisting in the Demonstrations then in Hand,

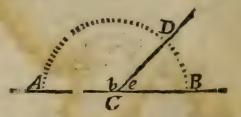
THEOREM I.

If a Right-line stand upon (or meet with) another Right-line, and make Angles with it, they will either be two Right-angles, or two Angles equal to two Right-angles. (13. e. 1.)

Demonstration.

Suppose the Lines to be A B and D C, meeting in the Point

at C: Upon C describe any Circle at pleasure; then will the Arch A D be the Measure of the racktriangle b, and the Arch D B the Measure of racktriangle e; but the Arches A D + D B = 180°, viz. they compleat the Semicircle.



Consequently the $= b + = 180^{\circ}$. Which was to be prov'd.

Corollaries.

1. Hence it follows, that if the $= 90^{\circ}$ then $= 90^{\circ}$;

but if \(b\) be obtuse, then the \(e\) will be acute, &c.

From hence it will be easy to conceive, that if several Rightlines stand upon, or meet with any Right-line at one and the same Point, and on the same Side, then all the Angles taken together will be = 180°, viz. Two Right-angles.

THEOREM II.

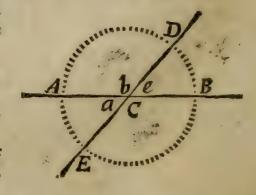
If two Angles intersect (i. e. cut or cross) each other, the two opposite

Angles will be equal. (15. e. 1.)

Demonstration.

Let the two Lines be A B and D E, intersecting each other in the Center C.

Subtract $\subset b$ on both Sides of the \mathcal{E} quation, and it will leave \subset



 $e = \langle a.$ Again, $\langle b + \rangle e = 180^{\circ}$, as before; and $\langle e + \rangle C = 180^{\circ}$, confequently $\langle e + C = \langle b + \rangle e$. Sultrast $\langle e \rangle$, and then $\langle C = \langle b \rangle e$. Q. E. D.

Garol-

Corollary.

From hence it is evident, that if two Lines interfect each other, they will make four Angles; which, being taken together, will always be equal to Four Right-angles.

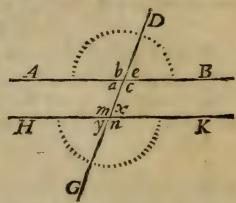
THEOREM III.

If a Right-line cut (or cross) two parallel Lines, it will make the opposite

Angles equal one to another. (29. e. 1.)

Suppose the two Lines AB and HK to be parallel, and the

Right line D G to cut them both at C and n: Upon the Point C (with any Radius) describe a Semicircle; and with the same Radius, upon the Point at n, describe another Semicircle opposite to the first, as in the Figure. Then 'tis plain, and I suppose very easy to conceive, that if the Center C were mov'd along upon the Line D G, until it came to the



Center at n, the two Lines A B and H K would meet and concur, viz. become one Line (for parallel Lines are as it were but one broad Line). Consequently the two Semicircles would also meet, and become one entire Circle, like to that in the last Demonstration.

Corollary.

Hence it follows, that if three, four, or ever so many Parallellines, are cut or cross'd by one Right-line, all their opposite Angles will be equal.

THEOREM IV.

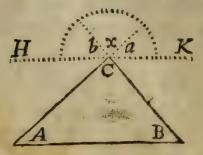
The three Angles of every plain Triangle are equal to two Right-angles. (32. e. 1.)

Consequently, any two Angles of any plain Triangle must needs be less than two Right-angles. (17. e. 1.)

Demonstration.

Let the A B C be propos'd; draw the Right-line H K pa-

rallel to the Side AB, just touching the Vertical Angle C; and upon the fame Angular Point C describe any Semicircle, and produce the Sides AC and BC to its Periphery. Then will b = B, a = A, and a = C, per last Theorem. But a = A and a = C, per last Theorem. But a = A and a = A a



two Right-angles: Confequently $< B + < A + < C = 180^{\circ}$ per Axiom 5. Q. E. D.

Corollary.

Hence it follows, that the two acute Angles of every Right-angled Triangle are equal to a Right-angle, or 90°.

Consequently, if one of the acute Angles be given, the other is also given, viz. 90°—the given \searrow leaves the other \searrow .

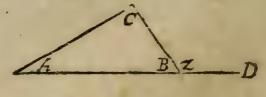
THEOREM V.

If one Side of any plain Triangle be continued or produced beyond, or out of the Triangle, the outward Angle will always to equal to the two inward opposite Angles. (32. c. 1.)

Demonaration.

Let the Side AB of the $\triangle ABC$ be produced out of the \triangle_{i} fuppose to D, &c. as in the Fi-

gure. Then z = A + C, for the $B + Z = 180^{\circ}$ per Theorem 1. and the $C = 180^{\circ}$, per last Theorem. Therefore



B + z = B + A + C, per Axiom 5. Subtract B on both Sides the Aquation, and it will leave z = A + C (per Axiom 2.) $Q \to D$.

Consequently, the outward Angle (at z) of any plain Triangle, must needs be greater than either of the inward opposite Angles, viz. greater than $\subset A$, or $\subset C$ (16. e. 1.)

Corollary.

Hence it follows, that if one Angle of any plain Triangle be given, the Sum of the other two Angles is also given; for 180°—the given = the other two = .

THEO-

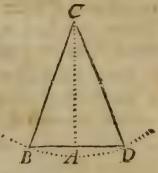
THEOREM VI.

In every plain Triangle, equal Sides subtend (viz. are opposite to) equal Angles. (5. c. 1.)

Consequently, equal Angles are subtended by equal Sides (6. e. 1.)

DemenAration.

Suppose the $\triangle BCD$ to be an Isosceles \triangle ; that is, let BC = GD. Bisect the C, or (which is all one) make CA perpendicular to BD; then will the C on each Side of it (viz. C B A C and C D A C) be Rightangles.



Therefore $\left\{ \frac{1}{2} \leq C + \leq B = 90^{\circ} \right\}$ per Corol. to Theorem 4.

Consequently, $\frac{1}{2} \subset C + \subset B = \frac{1}{2} \subset C + \subset D$, per Axiom 5. Subtract $\frac{1}{2} \subset C$ from both Sides of the Equation, and it will leave $C = C \subset D$, per Axiom 2. Q. E. D.

Corollary.

From hence it follows, that the three Angles of an Equilateral Triangle are equal one to another.

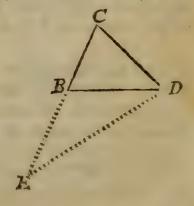
THEOREM VII.

In every plain Triangle, the longest Side subtends the greatest Angle. (18. e. 1.)

Consequently, the greatest Angle of any plain Triangle is subtended by the longest Side.

This Theorem is evident by Inspection only: For, let one of the

Sides of any plain Triangle (as CB) be produced, suppose to E; join DE with a Right-line; then 'tis evident, that because CE is now made longer than the Side BC, therefore the \neg at D is become larger than it was before by the \neg BDE: And it's plain, the longer the Side CE had been made, the \neg at D would have been the more enlarged.



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THEOREM VIII.

If the Sides of two Triangles are equal, the Angles opposite to those equal Sides will be equal. (8. e. 1.)

The Truth of this Theorem is evident by the two included Triangles in the 6th Theorem, for they have their respective Sides equal, viz. BC = CD, BA = DA, and CA common to both Triangles. And it is there prov'd, that the opposite to those equal Sides are equal, &c. which needs no further Proof.

Note, The Converse of this Theorem holds not true; for the Angles of two Triangles may be equal, and their opposite or subtending Sides unequal; as will appear at Theorem XII.

Corollary.

Hence it follows, that Triangles mutually equilateral are also mutually equiangular; and,

That Triangles mutually equilateral are equal one to another.

(4. & 26. e. I.)

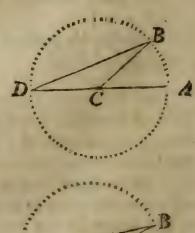
THEOREM IX.

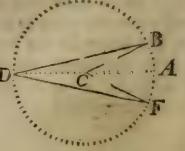
An Angle at the Center of any Circle is always double to the Angle at the Periphery, when both the Angles stand upon the same Arch. (20. e. 3.) This Theorem hath three Varieties or Cases.

Demonstration.

Case 1. Let the Diameter D A, and the Line D B, be the two Lines which form the \subset D at the Periphery; draw the Radius B C, then \subset B C A is the \subset at the Center. But \subset B C $A = \subset$ D + \subset B, per Th. 5. and because D C = B C, therefore \subset D = \subset B, per Theorem 6. consequently \subset B C A = A C A = A C

Case 2. Suppose the $\subset BCF$ at the Center to be within the $\subset BDF$ at the Periphery, (as in the annexed Figure.) Draw the Diameter DA; then the $\subset BCA = 2 \subset BDA$ per Case 1. and the $\subset FCA = 2 \subset FDA$ per Case 1. add these two E quations together.



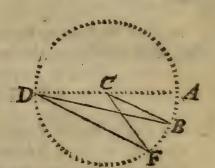


Then

Case 3. Again, suppose the $\subset BCF$ at the Center to be out of the $\subset BDF$ at the Periphery. From the Angular Point D at the Periphery draw the Diameter DA.

Then $\neg FCA = 2 \neg FDA$ per Cafe 1.

Subtract this last Equation from the other, and it will leave $\neg FCA - \neg BCA = 2 \neg FDA - 2 \neg BDA$, per Axiom 2. But $\neg FCA - \neg BCA = \neg FCB$, and $2 \neg FDA - 2 \neg BDA = 2 \neg FDB$: Consequently $\neg FCB = 2 \neg FDB$. Q. E. D.



Corollary.

Hence 'tis evident, that all Angles at the Periphery, which stand on the same Segment or Arch of a Circle, or upon equal Arches, are equal one to another. (21.2.3.)

THEOREM X.

An Angle in a Semicircle is a Right-angle. (31. e. 3.) That is, if the Diameter of any Circle be the Side of a Triangle, and the Angle opposite to that Side be any where in the Circle's Periphery, it will be a Right-angle.

Demonstration.

Let DA be the Diameter, and DBA the Triangle, then, $\neg B = 90^{\circ}$. Draw the Radius BC, then is the $\neg DBA = \neg D$, and $\neg CBA = \neg A$, per Theorem 6. Therefore $\neg DBA = \neg CBD$ $+ \neg CBA$, per Axiom 5. Again $\neg DBA + \neg D + \neg A = 180^{\circ}$, per Theorem 4. Confequently $\neg DBA$

D C A

Theorem 4. Consequently, $\subset D B A = 90^\circ$ or a Right-angle. Q. E. D.

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Corollaries.

- r. Hence it will be easy to conceive, that an Angle made in any Segment less than a Semicircle will be obtuse, or greater than a Right-angle.
- 2. And an Angle, made in any Segment greater than a Semicircle, must consequently be acute.

THEOREM XI.

In any Right-angled Triangle, the Square which is made of the Hypothenuse, or Side subtending the Right-angle, is equal to both the Squares which are made of the Sides including the Right-angle. - (47. e. 1.)

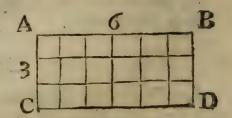
There are several Ways of demonstrating this noble and useful Theorem, but, I presume, none more easy to be understood by a Learner than that which I shall here propose: And, in order thereto, 'twill be necessary to premise the following Lemma's.

Lemma 1.

A Right-line is said to be multiply'd with a Right-line, when either a Square, or other Right-angled Parallelogram, is made of the two Lines.

That is, the Area of any Right-angled Parallelogram is equal to the Product of those Numbers which express the Measure of its Sides.

Thus, if AB = 6 Inches and AC = 3 Inches: Then $AB \times AC = 6$ $\times 3 = 18$ square Inches; which is the Area of the Parallelogram ABCD.



Lemma 2.

If a Right-line be any way cut into two Parts, the Square of the whole Line will be equal to the Squares of each Part, and a double Rectangle or Parallelogram made of both the Parts, (4. e. 2.) that is, if the Line S be cut into the Stwo Parts B and C; then is S = B + C:

But if both the Sides of the Equation be involved, it will be S = BB + 2BC + CC.

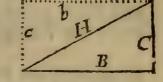
Lemma 3.

The Area of every Right-angled Triangle is half the Parallelo-

gram made of its Base and Perpendicular.

For $B \times C =$ the Area of the whole Parallelogram, by the first Lemma. And \triangle $B \subset H + \triangle b \subset H =$ the Parallelogram; but B = b, and C = c. Therefore $\frac{1}{2}B \times C =$

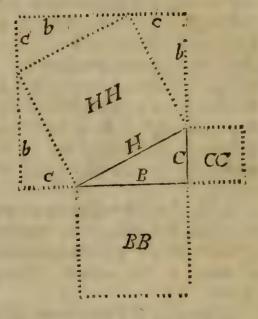
the Area of each \triangle , viz. $\frac{1}{2} B \times C + \frac{1}{2} b \times c B \times C$.



These Things being premised, let us suppose the Triangle B G H to be a Right-angled Triangle, viz. the Side G perpendicular to the Side B; then will B B + G C = H H.

Demonstration.

Make a Square whose Side is \equiv B+C, and draw the included Square whose Side is \equiv H, as in the Scheme: Then will the Area of the great Square be equal to the Area of the four Triangles + HH; but the Area of each $\triangle = \frac{1}{2}BC$, or $B \times C$, per Lemma 3. Therefore the $4 \triangle$'s $\equiv \frac{1}{2}BC \times 4 \equiv$ 2 BC, consequently, the Area of the great Square is HH+2BC. Involve B+C, and it will be BB+C and it will be BB+C and it great Square; per Lemma 3. Consequently, HH+2BC=C



BB + 2BC + CC, per Axiom 5. Subtract 2 BC from both Sides of the Equation, and there will remain HH = BB + CC.

To illustrate this Theorem by Numbers, let us

Suppose C = 3. B = 4. and H = 5. Then will CC = 9. BB = 16. and HH = 25. Consequently, BB + CC = HH = 16 + 9 = 25.

Confectary.

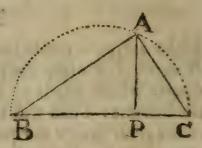
From this admirable Theorem (said to be first invented by Pythagoras) is deduced the Method of adding and subtracting Squares, Parallelograms, Circles, &c.

THEOREM XII.

In any Right-angled Triangle, a Perpendicular being let fall from the Right angle upon the Hypothenuse will divide the Triangle into two Right-angled Triangles, which will be both similar (or alike) to the first Triangle, and to each other. (8. e. 6.)

Note, All plain Triangles are faid to be fimilar (viz. alike) when each single Angle in one of the Triangles is equal to each single Angle of the other; but if any two single Angles of one Triangle are equal to two single Angles of the other, the third Angle will be equal. Per Theo. 4.

1. In the Right-angled \triangle BAC, let AP be supposed perpendicular to the Hy-pothenuse BC; then BAP = C. For $BAP + B = 90^{\circ}$, and $B+ C = 90^{\circ}$, per Corollary to Theorem 4. Therefore the BAP = C, per Axiom 5, again, PAC + C

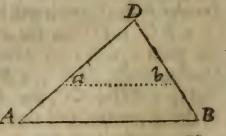


C = 90, and $B + C = 90^{\circ}$. Therefore PAC = B, &c. Confequently the $\triangle BAP$ is alike to the $\triangle ACP$; and each is like to the whole $\triangle BAC$.

2. Or if a Right-line be drawn parallel to one of the Sides of a-

ny plain Triangle, (viz. within it) it will cut off a Triangle similar or alike to the whole Triangle. Thus:

In the $\triangle ABD$ draw the Rightline a b parallel to the Side AB; then will the included $\triangle aDb$ be



like the $\triangle ADB$: For a = A and b = B, per Theorem 3; and D is common to both the Triangles; Ergo, &c.

THEOREM XIII.

If two Triangles are alike, their like Sides will be proportional.

That is, those Sides which subtend the equal Angles, as also those Sides which are about the equal Angles, will be proportional to each other; and consequently, if any two Triangles have their Sides proportional, their Angles are equal. (4, 5, 6, 7. e. 6.)

Demonstration.

Let the similar Triangles in the Scheme of the last Theorem be here proposed again.

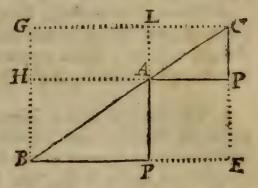
Then it will be BP: AP: : AP: CP, according to this The-

orem. Ergo $BP \times CP = AP \times AP$.

First.

Let us suppose the aforesaid Right-angled \triangle B AC cut through

the Perpendicular AP, and there open'd until the Sides BA and CA become one Right-line. Let the Sides BP and CP be continued until they meet in E; then compleat the Parallelograms by drawing the parallel Lines GLC, HAP, GHB, and LAP, as in the Figure.



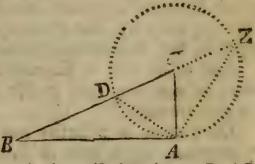
Then it is evident, that the $\triangle BHA = \triangle BPA$, and the $\triangle CPA = \triangle CLA$; also that the $\triangle BEC = \triangle BGC$, because

all their respective Sides are equal.

But the $\triangle B HA + \triangle CLA + \Box HGLA = \triangle BPA$, + $\triangle CPA + \Box APEP$. Now if from both Sides of this Equation there be subtracted the equal Triangles, there will remain $\Box HGLA = \Box APEP$. But $\Box HGLA = BP \times CP$, and $\Box APEP = AP \times AP$. Consequently BP:AP::AP:CP. Which was to be prov'd.

Or otherwise, thus:

Suppose the \triangle B A C to be Right-angled at A: Upon the \frown Point C, with the Radius C A describe a Circle, and continue the Hypothenuse B C to Z; join Z A and A D with Right-lines; then will the \triangle B A D be like to the \triangle B Z A. For \frown D A B +



 $abla DAC = 90^{\circ}$, by Construction. And $abla ZAC +
abla DAC = 90^{\circ}$, by Theorem X. Therefore abla DAB +
abla DAC =
abla ZAC +
abla DAC. By Axiom 5. Subtract abla DAC from both Sides of the Equation, and there will remain abla DAB =
abla ZAC. But abla ZAC =
abla CZA, by Theorem 6. And abla B is common

to both Triangles. Therefore $\neg BDA = \neg BAZ$, by Theorem 6, consequently $\triangle BAD$ is like to $\triangle BZA$.

Let the Sides $\begin{cases}
B A = b \\
B C = h
\end{cases}$ Then bb + cc = bb, by Theorem 11.

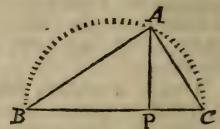
Confequently bb = bb = cc, which gives the following Analogy,

Viz. b:b+c::b-c:b; that is, BA:BZ::BD:BA.

Q. E. D.

Corollaries.

- 1. Hence it is evident, that, in any Right-angled Triangle, a Perpendicular, being let fall from the Right-angle upon the Hypothenuse, will be a Mean proportional between the Segments of the Hypothenuse: That is, BP:PA:PC.
- 2. The Base (B A) is a Mean proportional between the Hypothenuse (B C) and that Segment of the Hypothenuse next to the Base, (viz. B P) that is, B C : B A : B A : B P.



3. The Cathetus (AC) is a Mean proportional between the Hypothenuse (BC) and that Segment of the Hypothenuse next to the Cathetus, (viz. PC): That is, BC: AC: AC: PC.

Scholium.

I have been more large upon this most excellent Theorem, in giving a double Demonstration of it, because it is so universally useful in all Parts of the Mathematicks: For the Business of Trigonometry (both Plain and Spherical) wholly depends upon it; and therefore one may truly say, that Astronomy, Dialling, Navigation, Surveying, Opticks, &c. depend upon a due Application of it.

And of its Use in Geometry, Des-Cartes takes particular No-tice; as you may find in Dr. Pell's Algebra, Pag. 65, whose

Words are these:

Des Cartes, in a Letter not yet printed, writes thus: "In fearching the Solution of Geometrical Questions, I always make use of Lines parallel and perpendicular, as much as is possible, so the means as many Lines as are useful] and I consider no

other Theorems but these two, [the Sides of like Triangles have like Proportion]. And [in Restangle Triangles

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the Square of the greatest Side is equal to the Squares of the two other

" Sides.] And I am not afraid to suppose many unknown Quanti-

ties, that I may reduce the propos'd Question to such Terms, as

" to depend on no other Theorems but these Two."

This I thought convenient to insert, that the young Learner may see how the great Des-Cartes esteem'd these two Theorems, viz. the last, and Theorem 11; for, in Truth, all the precedent Theorems are only (as it were) Preparatives to these Two.

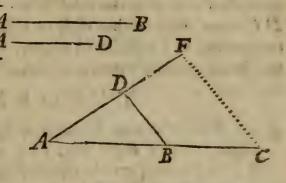
This last Theorem demonstrates the Reason of the Method used in finding out Proportional Lines; as in the Three sollowing Problems.

PROBLEM I.

Two Right-lines being given to find a Third in Proportion to them.
(11. e. 6.)

Let these two Lines be

Set the Two given Lines at any Angle in the Point A, and produce the Line AB to C, making BC = AD; join the Points B D with a Right-line, and draw CF parallel to BD; then will



the $\triangle ABD$ be like the $\triangle ACF$. Therefore AB:BC (= AD):: AD:DF, which is the third Proportional required.

PROBLEM II.

Two Right-lines being given, to find a Mean proportional Line between them. (13. e. 6.)

Let the given Lines be $\begin{cases} B & P \\ P & C \end{cases}$ Join the two given Lines into one, viz. make BC = BP + PC, and upon BC, as Diameter, describe a Semicircle; then upon the Point P, where the two Lines meet erect a Perpendicular to touch the

Ss.

Circle's Periphery, as PA, and it will be the Mean proportional requir'd, viz. BP:AP:AP:BC.

By this Problem' tis easy to conceive how to make a Square equal

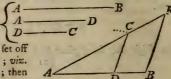
to any given Parallelogram. (14. e. 6.)

For if BP be the Length, and PC be the Breadth of the given Parallelogram, then will AP be the Side of the Square, equal in Area to that Parallelogram.

PROBLEM III.

Three Right-lines being given, to find a fourth Proportional Line. (12. e. 6.)

Suppose the three Lines



Upon the longest Line AB set off the next longest Line AD; wire make DB = AB - AD; then upon the Point D set the other Line

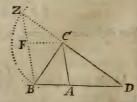
D C at an Angle, either right or oblique, and draw the Right line AC continuing it a fufficient Length; make B F parallel to D C, and it will be the fourth Proportional required; that is, AD: DC:: AB: BF.

THEOREM XIV.

If any Angle of a plain Triangle be bifetted (viz. divided into two equal Angles) with a Right-line, (viz. as C A is fuppos'd to do the Angle B C D) it will cut the opposite Side (viz. B D) in Proportion to the other two Sides of the Triangle (3. e. 6.) i. e. B A: B C:: A D: C D.

Demontration.

Produce the Side DC, until CZ = CB: join the Points ZB with a Right-line, and draw the Line FC parallel to BD; whence the Z = CBZ per Theorem 6, and Z + CBZ, or Z = CBZ = BCD, per Theorem 5; or, dividing both Sides of the Æquation by 2, Z $CBZ = \frac{1}{4} = BCD$. But $\frac{1}{4} = B$



CD = ACB = ACD by the Hypothesis, therefore ACB = CBZ per Axiom 5: Whence AC is parallel to BZ per Theorem 3, and the Triangles BDZ, ADC, and FCZ are similar by the second Figure to Theorem 12, consequently BA = FC = BC = ZC = AD = CD. Q. E. D.

THEOREM XV.

If two Right-lines (howfoever drawn) within a Circle do cut each other, the Restangle made of the Segments (or Parts) of the one Line, will be equal to the Restangle made of the Segments (or Parts) of the other Line. (35. e. 3.)

That is, if two Lines (as AB and CD) do cut each other in any

Point, as at x, then will $A \times B \times = D \times C \times C$

Demonstration.

Join the Points of AC and BD with Right-lines, then will the $\triangle C \times A$ be like to $\triangle B \times D$: For $\nabla B = \nabla C$ and $\nabla A = \nabla D$. by Corollary to Theorem 9. and $\nabla A \times C = \nabla B \times D$. by Theorem 2.



Therefore it will be Ax:D::Cx:Bx, by Theorem 13. Confequently $Ax \times Bx = Dx \times Cx$. Q. E. D.

THEOREM XVI.

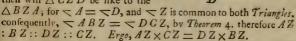
If two Right-Lines are so drawn within a Circle, as, being continued, they will meet in a Point out of the Circle's Periphery, the Restangle made of the one whole Line, and its Part out of the Circle, will be equal to the Restangle of the other whole Line, and its Part out of the Circle. (36, 37. e. 3.)

That is, if the Lines AC and DB be continued unto the Point Z; then will $AZ \times CZ = DZ$

 $\times BZ$

Demonatration.

Draw the Lines AB and CD, then will $\triangle CZD$ be like to the

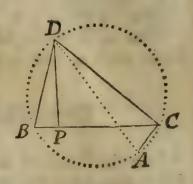


THEOREM XVII.

If from any Angle of a plain Triangle inscribed in a Circle there be let fall a Perpendicular upon the opposite Side, as DP; as that Perpen-S s 2 dicular is in Proportion to one of the Sides including the Angle, so is the other Side including the Angle to the Diameter of the Circle.

Demonstration.

Let BCD be the proposed Triangle. From the \neg at D draw the Diameter DA; then will $\neg A = \neg B$, because they both stand upon the same Arch DC, and $\neg DCA = 90^{\circ}$, by Theorem 10. consequently the $\neg ADC = \neg BDP$, by Theorem 4. Therefore $\triangle DCA$ is like to the $\triangle DPB$; and therefore, DP: DB: DC: DA; or DP: DC: DB: DA. Q. E. D.



THEOREM XVIII.

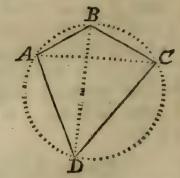
If any Quadrangle (that is, a Trapezium) be inscrib'd within a Circle, the two opposite Angles, taken together, are equal to two Right-Angles, viz. 18° (22. e. 3.)

That is, in the Quadrangle ABCD the $A + C = 180^{\circ}$.

And the $B + D = 180^{\circ}$.

Demonstration.

Draw the two Diagonals AC and BD; then will the $\subset BDA = \subset BCA$, and the $\subset BDC = \subset BAC$ by Corollary to Theorem 9. But $\subset ABC + \subset BCA + \subset BCA + \subset BCA + \subset BDA + \subset BDC$



 $= \ \ ADC$. Therefore the $\ \ ABC + \ \ ADC = 180^\circ$. and by the same Way of arguing it may be prov'd, that the $\ \ BAD + \ \ BCD = 180^\circ$. Q. E. D.

THEOREM XIX.

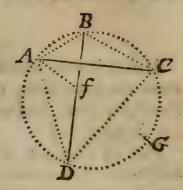
If in any Quadrangle inscrib'd within a Circle there be drawn two Diagonals, as AC and BD, the Restangle made of the two Diagonals will be equal to both the Restangles made of the opposite Side of the Quadrangle.

That is, $AC \times BD = AB \times CD + AD \times BC$.

Demonttration.

Make the Arch $DG \equiv Arch BC$, and from the Points AG draw the Line Af, and it will form the $\triangle AfD$, like to the $\triangle ABC$: For the $\triangle AD \equiv BAC$, because the Arches DG and BC are equal.

Again, the $\neg fDA = \neg BCA$, because they both stand upon the Arch AB: Consequently, the $\neg AfD = \neg ABC$,



by Theorem 4. Therefore it will be AC:BC:AD:Df, by Theorem 13. Ergo $\frac{BC \times AD}{AC} = Df$.

Again, the $\triangle B A f$ and $\triangle A C D$ are alike: For $\frown A B f$ $= \frown A C D$, and $\frown B A f = \frown C A D$, because the $\frown f A D$ $= \frown B A C$, and the $\frown C A f$ is common to both Triangles. Consequently, the $\frown A f B = \frown A D C$. Therefore AC : CD :: AB : B f, by Theorem 13. $Ergo \frac{C D \times A B}{A C} = B f$. But Df + Bf = B D. Consequently, $BC \times AD + CD \times AB = BD \times AC$. Q. E. D.

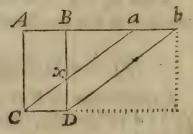
THEOREM XX.

All Parallelograms (whether Right or Oblique angled) that stand upon the same Base, or upon equal Bases, and betwixt the same Parallels; are equal to one another. (35. & 36. e. 1.)

That is, $\Box A \cdot B \cdot C \cdot D = \Box \cdot a \cdot b \cdot C \cdot D$.

Demonstration.

Because AB = CD = ab, by Supposition, therefore Aa = Bb;



But the Trapezium $AB \times C + \triangle C \times D = \square ABCD$, and the Trapezium $ab \times D + \triangle C \times D = \square abCD$, confequently $\square ABCD = \square abCD$. Q. E. D.

Corollary.

Hence it will be easy to conceive, that all Triangles which stand upon the same Base, or upon equal Bases, and between the same Parallels, (viz. having the same Height) are equal one to another. (37 & 38 e. 1.)

For all Triangles are the Halfs of their circumscribing Parallelograms; and therefore, if the Wholes be equal, their Halfs will

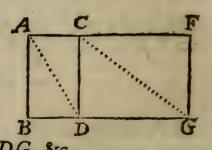
also be equal.

THEOREM XXI.

Parallelograms (and consequently Triangles) which have the same Heighth, have the same Proportion one to another as their Bases have. (1. e. 6.)

Demonstration.

Draw AF parallel to BG, and draw AB, CD, FG Perpendiculars to them. Then will $BD \times AB = \square ABCD$. And because CD = AB, therefore DG $\times AB = \square CDFG$, but BD:DG $\therefore BD \times AB:DG \times AB$. And confequently $\triangle ABD:\triangle CDG:BD:DG$, &c.



Q. E. D.

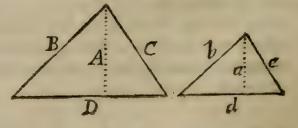
THEOREM XXII.

Like Triangles are in a duplicate Ratio to that of their homologous Sides. (19. e. 6.)

That is, the Area's of like Triangles are in Proportion one to another as are the Squares of their like Sides.

DemonAration.

Suppose the $\triangle BCD$ and $\triangle bcd$ to be alike, and their like Sides to be those mark'd with the same Letters.



Let

Let A and a be Perpendiculars to the two Bases D and d.

Then $\frac{1}{2}DA = \text{the Area of } \triangle BCD$ By Lemma 3, Page 303. And $\frac{1}{2}da = \text{the Area of } \triangle b c d$

But $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & B : b : D : d \\ And \begin{vmatrix} 2 & B : b : A : a \end{vmatrix}$ &c. By Theorem 13.

Conseq. 3 D: d:: A: a

3 ·· 4 Da = dA $4 \times \frac{1}{2} Dd$ 5 $\frac{1}{2} DDda = \frac{1}{2} DddA$. By Axiom 3.

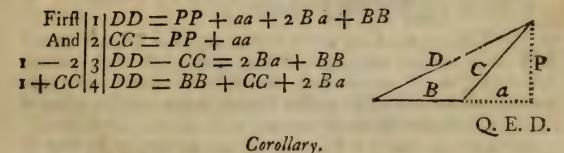
5, Hence $6 DD : dd : \frac{1}{2}DA : \frac{1}{2}da$. And so for other Sides. - Q. E. D.

THEOREM XXIII.

In every Obtuse-angled Triangle (as BCD) the Square of the Side subtending the obtuse Angle (as D) is greater than the Squares of the other two Sides (B and C) by a double Rectangle made out of one of the Sides (as B) and the Segment or Part of that Side produced (as a) until it meet with the Perpendicular (P) let fall upon it. (12 e. 2.)

That is, DD = BB + CC + 2Ba.

Demonstration.



Hence it is evident, that, if the Sides of any Obtuse-angled Triangle are given, the Segment (a) of the Side produced (or the Perpendicular P) may be easily found.

THEOREM XXIV.

If a Perpendicular (as P) be let fall into any Acute-angled Triangle (as BCD), the Square of either of the Two Sides (as D) is less than the Squares of the other Side, and that Side upon which the Perpendicular falls (viz. C and B) by a double Rectangle made of the Side B, and that Segment or Part of it (viz. a) which lies next to the Side C. (13. e. 2.)

That is, DD + 2Ba = BB + CC.

Demonstration.

Corollary.

Hence it follows, that, if the Sides of any Acute-angled Triangle be known, the Perpendicular P, and the Segments of the Side whereon it falls (viz. a, e.) may be easily found.

CHAP. IV.

The Solution of several Easy Problems in plain Geometry, whereby the Learner may (in Part) perceive the Application or Use of the foregoing Theorems.

OTE, when a Line, or the Side of any plain Triangle, is any Way cut into two or more Parts, either by a Perpendicular Line let fall upon it, or otherwise, those Parts are usually call'd Segments; and so much as one of those Parts is longer than the other, is call'd the Difference of the Segments.

And when any Side of a Triangle, or any Segment of its Side is given, 'tis usually mark'd with a small Line cross it, thus:

and those Sides or Parts of Sides, that are sought, are marked with

four Points, thus:

PROBLEM I.

To cut or divide a given Right line (as S) into Extreme and Mean Proportion. (11. e. 2.)

That is, to divide a Line so, that the Square of the greater Segment (or Part) a, may be equal to the Rectangle made of the whole Line S, and the lesser Segment e.

Viz. | I |
$$Se = aa$$
, by the Problem.
And | 2 | $S - a = e$, for $S = a + e$.

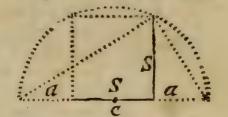
1
$$\div$$
 S 3 $\frac{aa}{S} = e$

2 and 3 4 $\frac{aa}{S} = S - a$. By Axiom 5.

4 \times S 5 $aa = SS - Sa$
5 + Sa 6 $aa + Sa = SS$
6, folved 7 $a = \sqrt{SS + \frac{1}{4}SS + \frac{1}{2}SS}$. See Pages 195, 196.

Note, The last Problem cannot be truly answered by Numbers, but Geometrically it may be performed, thus:

1. Make a Square whose Side is = S the given Line, and bisect one of its Sides in the Middle, as at C; upon the Point C describe such a Semicircle as will pass through the remotest Points of the Square, and compleat its Diameter.

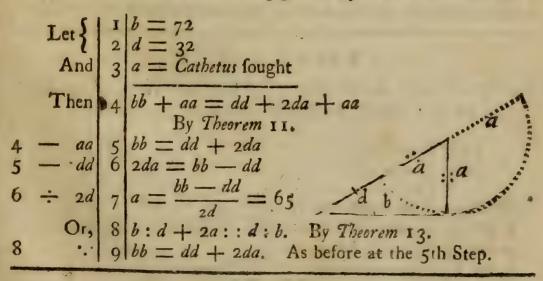


2. Then will either Part of the Diameter, on each End of the Side S, be = a, the greater Segment fought.

But a + S: S:: S: a. By Theorem 13. Ergo, aa + Sa = SS. Which was to be done.

PROBLEM II.

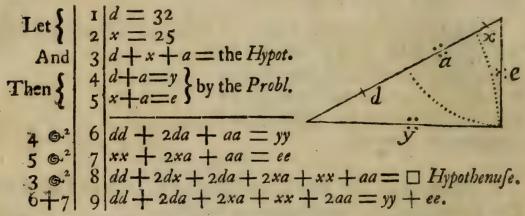
The Base of any Right-angled Triangle, and the Difference between the Hypothenuse and Cathetus being given, to find the Cathetus, &c.



Here you see that either Way raises the same Æquation; neither is there any constant Method or Road to be observed in solving Geometrical Problems, but every one makes Use of such Ways and Theorems as happen to come first into their Mind, the Result being every Way the same.

PROBLEM III.

The Difference between the Base and Hypothenuse of any Right-angled Triangle, and the Difference between the Cathetus and Hypothenuse being both given, to find the Triangle.



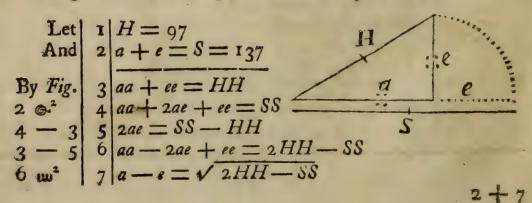
The two last Steps are equal, by Theorem 11. Consequently, if those Things that are equal in both be taken away, the Remainders will be equal. By Axiom 2.

That is 10 |
$$aa = 2dx = 1600$$

10 | w^2 | 11 | $a = \sqrt{2dx} = 40$
1 | $+$ | 11 | 12 | $d + a = 72 = y$ The Base.
2 | $+$ | 11 | 13 | $x + a = 65 = e$ The Cathetus.
1 | $+2+11$ | 14 | $d + x + a = 97$ The Hypothenuse.

PROBLEM IV.

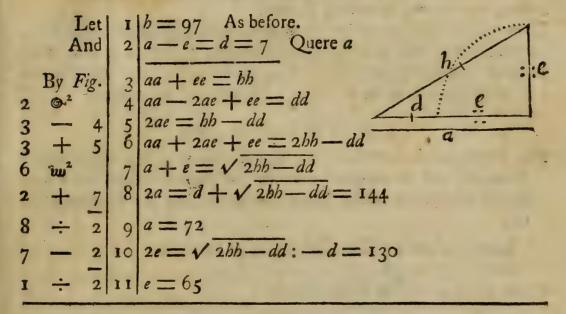
The Hypothenuse, and the Sum of the other two Sides, of any Rightangled Triangle, being given, thence to find the Sides.



Chap. 4.

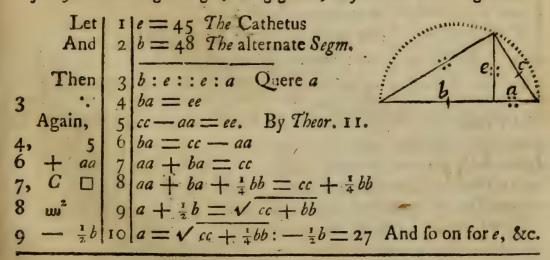
PROBLEM V.

The Hypothenuse, and the Difference of the other two Sides of any Right-angled Triangle being given, to find the Sides.



PROBLEM VI.

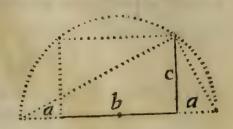
In any Right-angled Triangle, either the Base, or Cathetus, and the alternate Segment of the Hypothenuse made by a Perpendicular let fall from the Right-angle, being given, to find the other Segment.



I shall now shew the Geometrical Construction (or Solution) of the three Cases of Quadratick Æquations promised in 202. Let the first Example be that above, viz. aa + ba = cc. Case 1.

Make the Co-efficient b, and the Root of the Resolvend (which

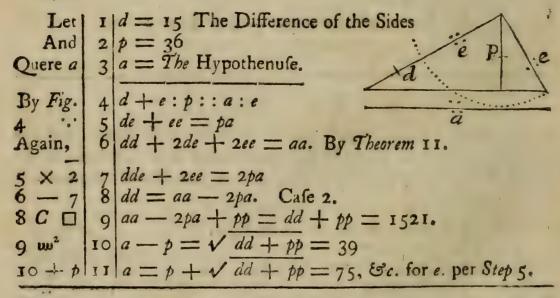
is here) c, into a Right-angled Parallelogram. And upon the middle Point of the Side = b, describe such a Semicircle, as will pass through the remotest Points or Angles of the Parallelogram, compleating its Diameter, as in the annexed Scheme.



Then will either Part of the Diameter, on each End, be equal to a; the other Part will be a + b, and the Side c will be a mean Proportional between them: That is, a + b : c : c : a. By Theorem 13, consequently aa + ba = cc. Which was to be done.

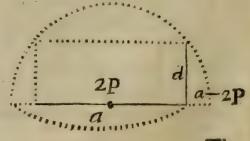
PROBLEM VII.

The Difference between the Base and Cathetus of any Right-angled Triangle, and the Perpendicular let fall from the Right-angle upon the Hypothenuse, being given; thence to find the Hypothenuse, &c.



The Geometrical Construction of this Case 2, viz. aa — 2pa = dd

may be performed in the very fame Manner as the last Case was; that is, by making a Right-angled Parallelogram of the Coefficient 2p and the \sqrt{dd} , viz. d, &c. As in the annexed Figure.



Then

Then will the greater Part of the Diameter to one End of the Parallelogram be $\equiv a$, and the leffer Part will be a - 2p. For a : d : d : a - 2p by Theorem 13. Consequently, $aa - 2pa \equiv dd$. Which was to be done.

PROBLEM VIII.

The Hypothenuse of any Right-angled Triangle, and the Perpendicular let fall from the Right-angle upon the Hypothenuse, being given, to find the greater Segment of the Hypothenuse, &c.

Let And 2
$$p = 36$$

Then 3 $a + e = b$ Quere a

per Fig. 4 $a: p:: p: e$

4 \therefore 5 $\frac{pp}{a} = e$

3 $-a$ 6 $b - a = e$

5, 6 7 $b - a = \frac{pp}{a}$

7 \times a 8 $ba - aa = pp$ Case 3.

8 $ba - aa = pp$ Case 3.

8 $ba - aa = pp$ Case 3.

9 $aa - ba = -pp$

9 $aa - ba = -pp$

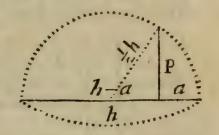
10 $aa - ba + \frac{1}{4}bb - pp = 110, 25$

10 $aa - ba + \frac{1}{4}bb - pp = 10, 5$

11 $a - \frac{1}{2}b = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}bb - pp} = 48$. Or, $a = 27$.

The Geometrical Construction of Case 3, viz. ha — aa = pp,

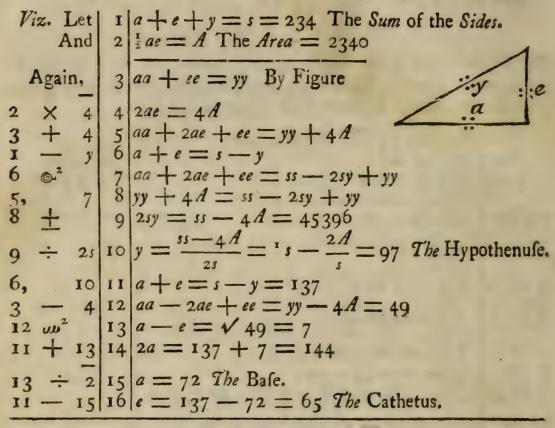
may be thus performed: Draw a Right-line (of any convenient Length at Pleafure) and near its Middle erect a Perpendicular $\equiv p$, viz. of the same Length with the Root of the Resolvend. From the top Point or upper End of that Perpendicular, set off Half the



Length of the Co-efficient, viz. $\frac{h}{2}$ and upon the Point where $\frac{h}{2}$ just touches the first Line (with the same Distance) describe a Semicircle; then will its Diameter h be cut by the Perpendicular p into two Segments, which are the two Values of the Root a, viz. the greater and lesser Roots, both taken together, being always equal to the Co-efficient: (vide Page 201.) For h = a : p : p : a by Theorem 13. Ergo, ha = aa = pp. Which was to be done.

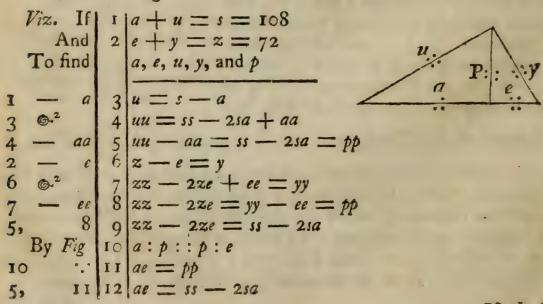
PROBLEM IX.

The Perimeter, i. e. the Sum of all the three Sides of any Right-angled Triangle, and its Area, being given, thence to find each Side.



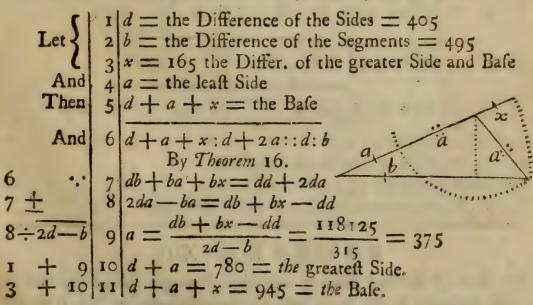
PROBLEM X.

In any Right-angled Triangle a Perpendicular being let fall from the Right-angle upon the Hypothenuse; if the Sum of each Segment, when added to its adjacent or next Side, be given, thence to find each Side, and the Segments.



PROBLEM XI.

The Difference of the Sides of any Oblique-angled plain Triangle, the Difference of the Segments of the Base, and the Difference between the greater Side and the Base, being given, to find the Base, &c.



PROBLEM XII.

The Difference of the Sides of any plain Triangle, the Difference of the Segments of the Base, and the Perpendicular let fall from the Vertical Angle, being given, thence to find all the Sides.

PROBLEM XIII.

The Sum of the two Sides of any plain Triangle, the Difference of the Segments of the Base, and the Perpendicular let fall from the Vertical Vertical Angle upon the Base, being given, thence to find the Base and the Sides.

```
11s = 1155 the Sum of the Sides.
           2 | d = 495 the Difference of the Segments.
           3 P = 300 the Perpendicular.
           4 a = the least Segment.
           5 e = the least Side.
    Then 6d + 2a = the Base.
     And 7 s-2e = the Difference of the Sides.
           8 d + 2a : s :: s - 2e : d
           9 aa - + pp = ee
          10 Vaa + pp = e
       : II | dd + 2da = ss - 2se
          12 2se = ss - dd - 2da
  Suppose |13|2x = ss - dd
    Then |14| 2se = 2x - 2da
14 \div 25 | 15 | e = \frac{x - da}{}
       |a| = \sqrt{aa + pp}
17 \times ss |18| xx - 2xda + ddaa = ssaa + sspp
          19 ssaa — ddaa + 2xda = xx — sspp
      19 20 2xaa + 2xda = xx - sspp
20 \div 2x | 21 | aa + da = \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{sspp}{2}, &c. as before.
21, hence 22 a = 225
22 \times 2 | 23 | 2a = 450
2 + 23 | 24 | d + 2a = 945 the Baje.
10, Num. 25 e = 375 the lesser Side.
 1 - 25 | 26 | s - e = 780 the greater Side.
```

PROBLEM XIV.

The Area of any Oblique-angled plain Triangle, the Difference of the Sides, and the Difference of the Segments of the Base, being given, thence to find the Base, &c.

Let
$$\begin{cases} \begin{vmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{vmatrix} & A = 141750 = \text{the Area.} \\ d = 405 \\ b = 495 \end{cases}$$

PROBLEM XV.

There is an Oblique-angled plain Triangle, wherein a Perpendicular is let fall from the Vertical Angle upon the Base; the least Side and the Base are given; and the Restangle of the Difference of the Sides into the least Side is equal to the Square of the Difference of the Segments of the Base; 'Tis requir'd to find the Segments of the Base, &c.

Let
$$\begin{cases} 1 & c = 56 = \text{ the least Side.} \\ B = 92 = \text{ the } Base. \\ a + 2e = B \\ y = \text{ the Difference of the } Sides. \\ Then & 5 & y = aa \text{ by the Question.} \end{cases}$$
By Figure
$$\begin{cases} 6 & c = 7 \\ Ba = 2cy + yy \end{cases}$$

$$5 & \times & 2 \\ 8 & Ba = 2cy + yy \end{cases}$$

$$5 & \times & 2 \\ 8 & Ba = 2aa = yy \end{cases}$$

$$5 & \times & 2 \\ 8 & Ba = 2aa = yy \end{cases}$$

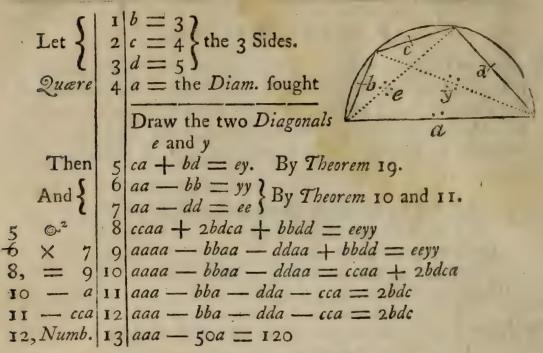
$$6 & c & 11 \\ 10 & c & c & 12 \\ 10 & c & c & 13 \\ 10 & c & c & 13 \\ 10 & c & c & 13 \\ 10 & c & c & 14 \\ 10 & c & c & 15 \\ 10 & c & c & 15 \\ 10 & c & c & c & 15 \\ 10 & c & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c & c \\ 10 & c & c \\ 10 & c & c & c \\ 10 & c$$

The Value of a, in this Equation, may be found as in the Examples Page 238, viz. by putting r + e = a, &c. as in those Examples you will find a = 37,55502, &c.

PROBLEM XVI.

The three Chords or Subtenses of three Arches compleating a Semicircle being each given, thence to find the Diameter of that Circle. That is,

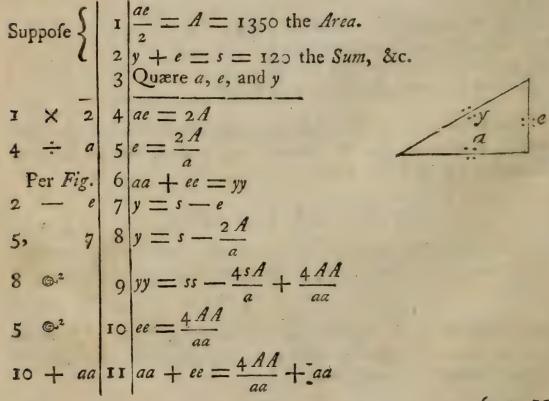
Any Trapezium being inscrib'd in a Semicircle, if one of its Sides be the Diameter, and the other three Sides be given, thence to find the Diameter or fourth Side.



This \mathbb{E} quation being folv'd as in \mathbb{E} xample 2, \mathbb{P} age 240, you will find a=8,05581, &c.

PROBLEM XVII.

In any Right-angled Triangle, the Area and the Sum of the Hypothenuse, when added to either Side, being given, thence to find the Sides, &c.



6, 9, 11 | 12 |
$$\frac{4AA}{aa} + aa = yy = ss - \frac{4sA}{a} + \frac{4AA}{aa}$$

12, That is | 13 | $aa = ss - \frac{4sA}{a}$
13 | $x = ss - \frac{4sA}{a}$
14 | $aaa = ssa - 4sA$
15 | $ssa - aaa = 4sA$
15, in Num. | 16 | 14400a - $aaa = 648000$

The Value of a, in this \cancel{E} quation, may be found as in the third Example, Page 241; that is, by making r + e = a, &c. it will be found that a = 60.

PROBLEM XVIII.

There is an Oblique-angled plain Triangle, wherein a Perpendicular is let fall from the Vertical Angle upon the Base; the Sum of each Segment of the Base, when added to its adjacent or next Side, and the Area of the Triangle, are given, to find the Perpendicular and each Side.

Let
$$\begin{cases}
1 & y + b = z = 1500 \\
e + u = s = 600
\end{cases} \text{ Quære } y, b, e, \text{ and } u$$

$$A = \text{ the } Area = 141750$$

$$A = \text{ the } Perpendicular \text{ fought.}$$

$$A = \text{ t$$

6, 19 20
$$\frac{zz - aa}{2z} + \frac{ss - aa}{2s} = \frac{2A}{a}$$

20 \times 2z 21 $zz - aa + \frac{zzs - zaa}{s} = \frac{4za}{a}$
21 \times s 22 $zzs - saa + zss - zaa = \frac{4zA}{a}$
22 \times a 23 $zzsa - saaa + zssa - zaaa = 4zAs$
23, Numb. 24 900000a - aaa = 243000000
Here $a = 300$ found as in the last Problem.

PROBLEM XIX.

There is a Right-angled Triangle, wherein a Right-line is drawn parallel to the Cathetus; there is given the Cathetus, that Segment of the Hypothenuse next to the Cathetus, and the alternate Segment of the Base; thence to find the Base, &c.

For a Solution of this Æquation, let it be made

Then
$$\begin{cases} r + 4rre + 6rree = a^4 \\ -dr - de = -da \end{cases} = G \quad \text{Viz.} \begin{cases} b = 40 & \text{c} = 751 \\ d = 9000 & \text{G} = 90000 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} r + 4rre + 6rree = a^4 \\ brrr + 3brre + 3bree = baaa \\ -rr + 2cre + cee = caa \\ -rr - de = -da \end{cases} = G = 90000$$

$$\begin{cases} -dr - de = -da \\ -dr - de = -da \end{cases}$$

Then

Then
$$\begin{cases} +10000 + 4000e + 600ee \\ +40000 + 12000e + 1200ee \\ +75100 + 15020e + 751ee \end{cases} = G = 90000$$

$$That is, 35100 + 22020e + 2551ee = 90000$$

$$Hence it will be 22020e + 2551ee = 54900$$

$$Confequently, 8,63e + ee = 21,52 = D$$

$$And \frac{D}{8,63 + e} = e$$

$$Operation, 8,63) 21,52 (2,1 = e) + e = 2,1$$

$$1. Divifor = 10$$

$$1,52$$
First $r = 10$

1. Divisor = 10 1,52 First
$$r = 10$$

2. Divisor = 10,7 1,07 $+ e = 2,1$

45 &c. r + e = 12, 1 = r for a fecond Operation, which being involv'd, and multiply'd into the Co-efficients, as before, will produce these Numbers:

$$+ 21435,8881 + 7086,24e + 878,46ee
+ 70862,4400 + 17569,20e + 1452,00ee
+ 109953,9100 + 18174,20e + 751,00ee
- 108900,0000 - 9000,00e$$

Viz. 93352,2381 - 33829,64e + 3081,46ee = 90000 Here, because 93352,2381 > 90000 therefore 12,1 > a, and therefore it must be made r - e = a, which will produce the same Numbers, only all the second Signs must be changed.

Thus, 93352,2381 - 33829,64e + 3081,46ee = 90000 from

whenee will arise this Aquation:

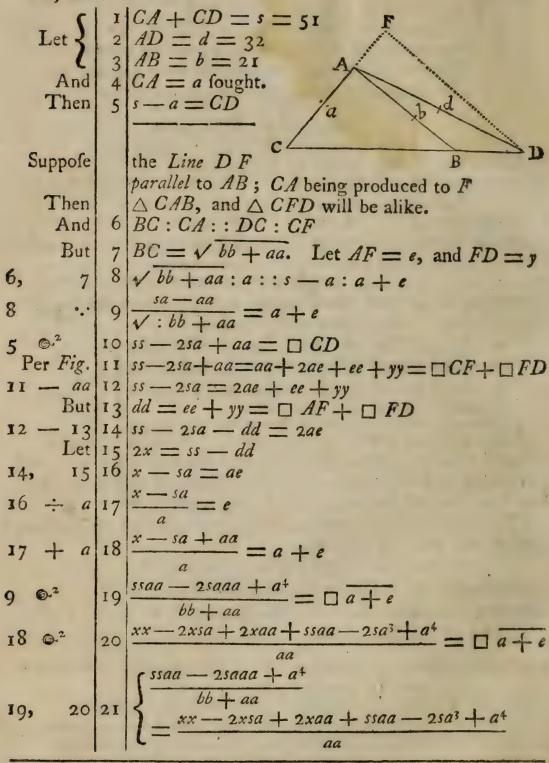
+33829,64e - 3081,46ee = 3352,2381Consequently, 10,9784e - ee = 1,08787332 = DOperation, 10,9784) 1,08787332 (0,0999 = e — e =,0999 . 9792

1. Divisor 10,88 108673 Last
$$r = 12,1$$

2. Divisor 10,879 97911 $-e = 0,0999$
3. Divisor 10,8785 1076232 $r - e = 12,0001 = e$
979065 &c.

PROBLEM XX.

In the Oblique-angled Triangle CAD, there is given the Side AD, and the Sum of the Sides AC + CD; also within the Triangle is given the Line AB perpendicular to the Side CA; thence to find the Side GA, &c.



This Equation being brought out of the Fractions, and into Numbers, will become - 2018a4 + 125409a3 - 2464230,25a2 +35468307a = 274183922,25; which being divided by 2018, the Co-efficient of the highest Power of a, will be - a4 + 62,145 $6a^3 - 1221,125a^2 + 17575,9697a = 135869,138875, &c.$ And And from hence the Value of a may be found, as in the last Problem, due Regard being had to the Signs of every Term.

This Work of reducing, or preparing Equations for a Solution by Division, hath always been taught both by ancient and modern Writers of Algebra, as a Work so necessary to be done, that they do not so much as give a Hint at the Solution of any adsected Equation without it.

Now it very often happens, that, in dividing all the Terms of an Equation, some of their Quotients will not only run into a long Series, but also into imperfect Fractions (as in this Equation above) which renders the Solution both tedious and imperfect.

To remedy that Impersection, I shall here shew how this Æquation (and consequently any other) may be resolv'd without such

Division or Reduction.

Let
$$b = 2018$$
. $c = 125409$. $d = 2464230,25$
 $f = 35468307$. And $G = 274183922,25$
Then the precedent Equation will stand thus:
 $-baaaa + caaa - daa + fa = G$
Put $r + e = a$ as before.
Then will
$$\begin{cases} -br^4 - 4brrre - 6brree = -ba^4 \\ +cr^3 + 3crree + 3cree = -ba^4 \\ -drr - 2dree - dee = -daa \\ +fr + fe + fe + fa \end{cases} = G$$

This is plain and easily conceived. The next Thing will be, how to estimate the first Value of r; and, to perform that, let G be divided by b, only so far as to determine how many Places of whole Numbers there will be in the Quotient; consequently, how many Points there must be (according to the Height of the Equation.)

Thus
$$b = 2018$$
) $G = 274183922,25$ (130000 2018 7238, &c.

Now from hence one may as easily guess at the Value of r, as if all the Terms had been divided. That is, I suppose r = 10, which being involved, &c. as the Letters above direct, will be $X \times x = 20880000$

$$\begin{array}{l}
-20880000 - 8072000e - 1210800ee \\
+125409000 + 37622700e + 3762270ee \\
-246423025 - 49284605e - 2464230, 25ee \\
+354683070 + 35468307e
\end{array}$$

Viz. 213489045 + 15734402e + 87239,75ee = 2741839 &c.

Hence
$$15734402e + 87239,75ee = 60694877,25$$

Consequently, $180,3e + ee = 695,72 = D$
And $\frac{D}{180,3+e} = e$

Operation. 180,3) 695,72 (3,7 = e

$$+ e = 3.7$$
) 549
1. Divisor = 183 146.72 First $r = 10$
2. Divisor = 184.0 128.80 $+ e = 3.7$

&c. r + e = 13.7 = r for a fecond Operation, with which you may proceed, as in the last Problem, and so on to a third Operation, if Occasion require such Exactness. But this may be sufficient to shew the Method of refolving any adfected Equation, without reducing it; which is not only very exact, but also very ready in Practice, as will fully appear in the last Chapter of this Part, concerning the Periphery and Area of the Circle, &c. wherein you will find a farther Improvement in the Numerical Solution of High Equations than hath hitherto been publish'd.

CHAP. V.

Practical Problems, and Kules for finding the Supersitial Contents, or Area's of Right lin'd Figures.

BEfore I proceed to the following Problems, it may be convenient to acquaint the Learner, that the Superficies or Area of any Figure, whether it be Right-lin'd or Circular, is compos'd or made up of Squares, either greater or lefs, according to the different Measures by which the Dimensions of the Figures are taken or measur'd.

That is, if the Dimensions are taken in Inches, the Area will be compos'd of square Inches; if the Dimensions are taken in Feet, the Area will be compos'd of square Feet; if in Yards, the Area will be square Yards; and if the Dimensions are taken by Poles or Perches (as in surveying of Land, &c.) then the Area will be square Perches,

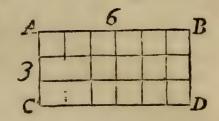
&c. These Things being understood, and the Definitions in the 283d and 284th Pages well consider'd, will help to render the following Rules very easy.

PROBLEM I.

To find the Superficial Content, or Area of a Square, or of any Right-angled Parallelegram.

Rule. { Multiply the Length into its Breadth, and the Product will be the Area requir'd. (See Lemma 1. Page 302.)

Example. Suppose the Line AB = 6 Yards, and the Breadth AC or BD = 3 Yards, then $AB \times AC = 6 \times 3 = 18$ will be the Number of fquare Yards contain'd in the Area of the Parallelogram ABCD. This is so evi-



dent by the Figure only, that it needs no Demonstration.

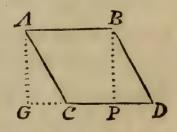
PROBLEM II.

To find the Area of any Oblique-Triangled Parallelogram, viz. either of a Khombus or Khomboides.

RULE. { Multiply the Length into its perpendicular Height (or Breadth) and the Product will be the Area requir'd.

That is, the Side $AB \times BP =$ the Area of the Rhombus ABCD.

For if BP be drawn perpendicular to CD, and AG be made parallel to BP, then will GC = PD and GP = CD. Confequently $\triangle AGC = \triangle BPD$, and $\triangle ABGP = Rhombus ABCD$. But $AB \times BP = \triangle ABGP$. Therefore $AB \times BP$, or $CD \times BP =$ the Area of the Rhombus ABCD.



Example. Suppose the Side AB = 23 Inches, and the Perpendicular BP = 17.5 Inches (being the shortest or nearest Distance between the two Sides, AB and CD.) then $AB \times BP = 23 \times 17.5 = 402.5$ square Inches, being the Area of the Rhombus required.

The like may be done for any Rhomboides whose Length and per-

pendicular Breadth is given.

PROBLEM III.

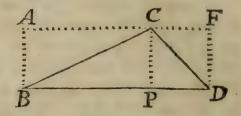
To find the Superficial Content, or Area of any plain Triangle.

Every plain Triangle is equal to half its circumscribing Parallelogram, (41. e. 1.) which affords the following Rule:

RULE. Multiply the Base of the given Triangle into half its perpendicular Height, or half the Base into the whole Perpendicular, and the Product will be the Area.

That is, $BD \times \frac{1}{2} CP$, or $\frac{1}{2} BD \times CP = Area of \triangle BCD$.

For AC = BP, AB = CP, and BC is common to both $\triangle \triangle$; therefore $\triangle ABC = \triangle BCP$, and for the like Reafons $\triangle CFD = \triangle CPD$. Therefore $\triangle BCP + \triangle CPD = \frac{1}{2} = ABCD$.



Consequently $\frac{1}{2}BD \times CP$, or $BD \times \frac{1}{2}CP$ will be the Area of $\triangle BCD$.

Example. Suppose the Base BD = 32 Inches, and the perpen-

cular Height GP = 14 Inches.

Then $\frac{1}{2}BD \times CP = 16 \times 14 = 224$. Or $BD \times \frac{1}{2}CP = 32 \times 7 = 224$. Or thus, $32 \times 14 = 448$. Then 2) 448 (224) = the Area of the Triangle BCD in Square Inches.

PROBLEM IV.

To find the Superficies, or Area of any Arapezium.

First, divide the given Trapezium into two Triangles, by drawing a Diagonal from one of its acute Angles to the opposite Angle; and let fall two Perpendiculars (from the other two Angles) upon the Diagonal, as in the following Figure. Then

Rule. Sum of the Diagonal into the Sum of the two Per-Rule. Sum of the Perpendiculars into the Diagonal, and the Product will be the Area.

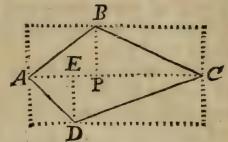
That is, $\frac{1}{2} AC \times \overline{BP + ED}$. Or $AC \times \frac{1}{2} \overline{BP + \frac{1}{2} ED} =$ Area of the Trapezium ABCD.

For the \triangle ABC is Half its circumscribing Parallelogram; and the \triangle ACD is also Half of its circumscribing Parallelogram, as hath been prov'd at the last Problem.

Consequently,

Consequently, $\overline{BP + ED} \times \frac{1}{2} AC$, or $\overline{\frac{1}{2}BP + \frac{1}{2}ED} \times AC$ will be the Area of the Trapezium, as above.

Example. Suppose the Diagonal AC = 33 Feet, and the Perpendicular BP = 15 Feet, and the Perpendicular ED = 14 Feet. Then BP + ED = 29 Feet, and $BP + ED \times \frac{1}{2}$ $AC = 29 \times 16,5$

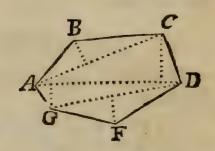


= 478,5. Or $AC \times \frac{1}{2}BP + \frac{1}{2}ED = 33 \times \frac{29}{2} = 478,5$. Or thus, $29 \times 33 = 957$. Then 2) 957 (478,5 any of these Products are the Area of the Trapezium ABCD.

PROBLEM V.

To find the Superficial Content or Area of any irregular Polygon, or

many-sided Figure, which by some Authors is call'd a Triangulate, because (as I suppose) it must be divided into Triangles, as in the annexed Figure ABCD FG; by which it is evident, that the Sum of the Area's of all those Triangles, sound as in the last Problem, &c. will be the Area of their circumscribing Polygon.



PROBLEM VI.

To find the Superficies, or Area of any regular Polygon, viz. of any regular Pentagon, Heragon, Heptagon, Daagon, &c.

General Rule. Multiply half the Sum of its Sides into the Radius of the inscrib'd Circle, or half the said Radius into the Sum of the Sides, and the Product will be the Area required.

That is, $\frac{AB+BD+DE+EF+FG+GH+HK+KA}{2}$: $\times CP$

= the Area of the annexed Octagon; wherein it is evident, that its Area is compos'd of so many equal Isosceles Triangles as there are Numbers of Sides in the Polygon, viz. of eight Isosceles Triangles, whose Bases are the Sides of the Octagon, viz. AB = BD = DE, &c. And the Sides of those Triangles, CA, CB, CD, &c. are the Radius's of the circumscribing Circle; and their perpendicular Heights, viz. PP, is the Radius of the inscrib'd Circle.

But

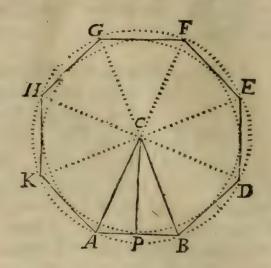
But the Area of any one of those Triangles is $\frac{1}{2}AB \times CP$

by Problem 3. Consequently the Sum of all their Area's will be CP into half the Sum of all their Bases, as above.

This, being equally evident in all regular Polygons whatsoever, makes the Rule general for find-

ing their Area's.

Now, because it is requir'd to have the Radius of the propos'd Polygon's inscrib'd Circle, I shall here insert (and demonstrate) the Proportions that are between the



Sides of several regular Polygons and the Radius's both of their inscrib'd and circumscribing Circles; the one will help to delineate or project the Polygon (if Occasion require it) and the other will help to find its Area.

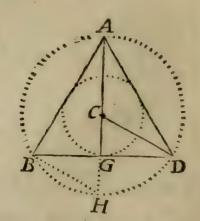
And First, Of an Equilateral Triangle.

The Side of any Equilateral plain Triangle is in Proportion to the Radius of

i. e.
$$\begin{cases} AB:CD:: 1:0,57735027 \\ AB:CG:: 1:0,28867513 \\ AB:AG:: 1:0,86602540 \end{cases}$$

Demonstration.

Let AB = BD = 1, then will BG = GD = 0.5; but $\square AB - \square BG = \square AG$ by Theorem 11. That is, $\square AG = 0.25 = 0.75 = \square AG$, confequently, $\sqrt{0.75} = 0.86602540 = AG$.



Then AG: AB::AB:AH, by Theorem 13, that is, 0,8660254: 1::1:1,15470054 &c. = AH, then $\frac{1}{2}AH = 0.57735027 = AC$. Again, AG:DG::DG:CG, that is, 0,8660254:0,5::0,5:0,28867513 = CG. Q. E. D.

Now, by the Help of the First of these Proportions, it will be

easy to resolve the sollowing Problem.

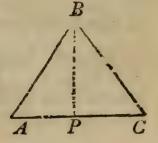
PROBLEM VII.

The Side of any Equilateral plain Triangle being given, to find its Area.

Example, Suppose the Side of the propos'd Triangle ABC

to be 25 Inches, viz. AB = BC = CA = 25First 1: 0,866254:: AB = 25: 21,650635 = BP by Theorem 13. Then $AP = \frac{1}{2}C$ A) $\times BP =$ the Area of $\triangle ABC$ by Rule to Problem 3, that is, 12,5 \times 21,650635 = 270,6329 the Area in square Inches.

Or this Problem may be otherwise resolv'd thus: Let b = AP = AC. Then 2b = AB. But



 \Box $AB - \Box$ $AP = \Box$ BP. By Theorem 11. That is, $4bb - bb = 3bb = \Box$ BP. Consequently, \checkmark 3bb = BP. Then $b \checkmark$ $3bb = BP \times \frac{1}{2}$ AC. viz. \checkmark $3bbbb \times \checkmark$ 3 =the Area of the Triangle.

Secondly, For a Pentagon.

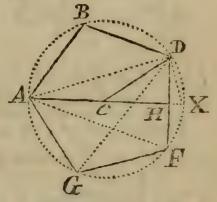
The Side of any Pentagon is in Proportion to the Radius of

its {Circumscribing Circle, Inscrib'd Circle, Perpendicular Height,} As 1: To {0,85065080 &c. 0,68819096 &c. 1,53884176 &c.

Viz. $\begin{cases} AB:AC:: 1:0,85065080\\ AB:CH:: 1:0,68819096\\ AB:AH:: 1:1,53884176 \end{cases}$

Demonaration.

Let $AB \equiv 1$. And draw the Diagonals AD, AF, and DG, which
will be equal to one another. Then will $AG \times DF + AD \times GF = AF \times DG$ by Theorem 19. Confequently, $AG \times$



 $DF = AF \times DG$: — $AD \times GF$, that is, $\Box AB = \Box AD$: — $AD \times GF = I$ (because AB = AG = DF, and AD = AF = DG) hence it will be AD = I,61803398, then $\Box AD = \Box DH = \Box AH$ by Theor. II. But $DH = \frac{1}{2}AB$, therefore $\sqrt{\Box AD} = \frac{1}{4}\Box AB = AH = I$.53884176. Again, AH: AD: AD = AH = I.53884176. Again, AH: AD: AD = AH = I.53884176. Again, AH: AD: AD = AH = I.53884176. Again, AH: AD: AD = AH = I.53884176.

Ergo

Ergo $\frac{\Box AD}{AH} = 2AC = 1,70130161$. Hence AC = 0,85065080But AH = AC = CH = 0,68819096, &c. Q. E. D. From hence it will be easy to resolve the following Problem.

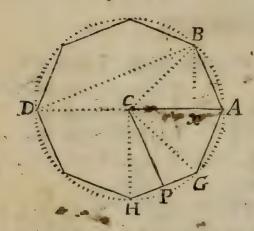
PROBLEM VIII.

The Side of any regular Pentagon being given, to find its Area.

Example. Suppose the given Side to be 15 Inches long, then it will be, as 1: 1,53884176:: 15: 22,0826264 the perpendicular Height; and by the general Rule 22,0826264 $\times \frac{1}{2}$ = 165,619698 the Area requir'd.

Thirdly, For an Daagon.

The Side of any regular Octagon is in Proportion to the Radius of its { Circumscribing Circle, As 1: to 1,30656296, &c. Infinib'd Circle, As 1: to 1,20710678, &c.



Viz. $\begin{cases} BA:CA::1:1,30656296\\ BA:CP::1:1,20710678 \end{cases}$

Demonstration.

Draw the Right Line DB, and from the Point B let fall the Perpendicular Bx upon the Diameter DA.

Then will $\triangle DBA$ and $\triangle DxB$ be alike, by Theorem 10 and 12.

Let
$$\begin{cases} b \equiv BA \equiv 1 : a \equiv CA \\ e \equiv BD, \text{ and } y \equiv Bx \end{cases}$$

From hence 'twill be easy to find the Area of any Octagon.

PROBLEM IX.

The Side of any regular Octagon being given, to find its Area:

Example. Suppose the Side given to be 12 Inches long; First, as 1: 1,20710678:: 12: 14,48528136 \equiv the Radius of its inferib'd Circle; then 12 \times 4 \equiv 48 is half the Sum of its Sides, and 48 \times 14,48528136 \equiv 695,2935 the Area required.

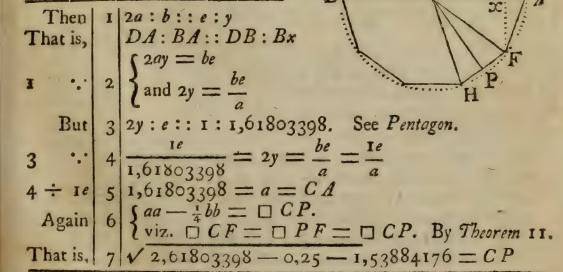
Fourthly, For a Decagon.

The Side of any regular Decagon (viz. a Polygon of ten equal Sides)
is in Proportion to the Radius of

Its { Circumscribing Circle, as 1: to 1,61803398, &c. Inscrib'd Circle as 1: to 1,53884176, &c.

Viz. $\begin{cases} BA: CA:: 1:1,61803398 \\ BA: CP:: 1:1,53884176 \\ \text{Demonstration.} \end{cases}$

Let $\begin{cases} b = BA = 1 \cdot a = CA \\ c = DB, \text{ and } y = Bx \end{cases}$



PROBLEM X.

The Side of any regular Decagon being given, to find its Area:

Example. Let the given Side be 14 Inches long; then, as $1:1,53884176::14:21,543784 \equiv$ the Radius of the inferib'd Circle; and $14 \times 5 \equiv 70$ is half the Sum of its Sides. Lastly, $21,543784 \times 70 \equiv 1508,06488$ the Area requir'd.

Fifthly, For a Dodecagon.

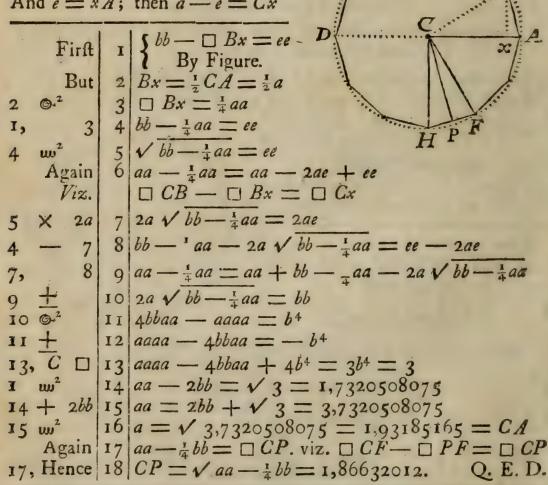
The Side of any regular Dodecagon (viz. a Polygon of twelve equal Sides) is in Proportion to the Radius of

Its { Circumscribing Circle; as 1: to 1,93185165, &c. Inscrib'd Circle as 1: to 1,86632012, &c.

Viz. $\begin{cases} BA:CA::1,03185165\\ BA:CP::1,86632012 \end{cases}$

Demonstration.

Let b = BA = 1, a = CA as before And e = xA; then a - e = Cx



Consectary.

Hence if the Side of any regular Dodecagon be given, the Radius of its inscrib'd Circle may be easily obtain'd, and thence the Area found; as in the last Problem.

The Work of the 'foregoing Polygons, being well consider'd, will help the young Geometer to raise the like Proportions for others, if his Curiosity requires them: And not only so, but they will also help to form a true Idea of a Circle's Periphery and Area, according to the Method which I shall lay down in the next Chapter for finding them both.

CHAP. VI.

A new and easy Method of finding the Circle's Periphery and Area to any assign'd Exactness (or Number of Figures) by one Æquation only. Also a new and facile Way of making Natural Sines and Tangents.

LET us suppose (what is very easy to conceive) the Circle's Area to be compos'd or made up of a vast Number of plain Isosceles Triangles, having their acutest Angles all meeting in the Circle's Center. And let us imagine the Bases of those Triangles so very small, that their Sides and their Perpendicular Heights, viz. the Radius's of their circumscrib'd and inscrib'd Circles (vide Problem 6.) may become so very near in Length to each other, as that they may be taken one for another without any sensible Error: Then will the Peripheries of their circumscribing and inscrib'd Circles become (altho' not co-incident, yet) so very near to each other, as that either of them may be indifferently taken for one and the same Circle.

But how to find out the Sides of a Polygon (viz. the Bases of those Isosceles Triangles) to such a convenient Smallness as may be necessary to determine and settle the Proportion betwixt a Circle's Diameter and its Periphery (to any assign'd Exactness) hath hitherto been a Work which requir'd great Care and much Time in its Performance; as may easily be conceived from the Nature of the Method us'd by all those who have made any considerable Progress in it, viz. Archimedes, Snellius, Hugenius, Mætius, Van Culen, &c. These proceeded with the bisecting of an Arch, and sound the Value of its Chord to a convenient Number of Figures

at every fingle Bisection, repeating their Operations until they had

approach'd to the Chord design'd.

And this Method is made Choice of by the learned Dr. Wallis in his Treatife of Algebra; wherein, after he hath given us a large Account of the different Enquiries made by several (very eminent in Mathematical Sciences) in order to find out some easier and more expeditious Way of approaching to the Circle's Periphery, as in Chap. 82, 84, 85, 86, and several other Places, he comes to this Result, (Page 321.)

"Tis true, faith he, we might in like Manner proceed by continual Trisection, Quinquisection, or other Section, if we had

- for these as convenient Methods of Operation as we have for
- Bisection: But because Euclid shews how to bisect an Arch
- Geometrically, but not to trifect, &c. and the one may be done " (Algebraically) by refolving a Quadratick Æquation, but not
- those other, without Æquations of a higher Composition, I

therefore make Choice of a continual Bisection, &c."

And then he lays down these following Canons:

How tedious and troublesome the Work of these complicated Extractions is, I leave to the Confideration of those, who either have had Experience therein, or out of Curiosity will give themselves the Trouble of making Trial.

Again, in Page 347, the Doctor inserts a particular Method proposed by Libritius, publish'd in the Acta Eruditorum at Leipsick, for the Month of February 1682, in order to find the Circle's Area, and confequently its Periphery, which is this:

As $1: to \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{13} - \frac{1}{15} + \frac{1}{17} - \frac{1}{19}, &c.$ infinitely: ; so is the Square of the Diameter to the Circle's Area. But this convergeth so very flowly, that it is not worth the Time to pursue it.

I shall here propose a new Method of my own, whereby the Circle's Periphery, and consequently its Area, may be obtain'd infiniteinfinitely near the Truth, with much greater Ease and Expedition than either that of Bisection, or that of Libritius, as above, or any other Method that I have yet seen; it being perform'd by resolving only one Equation, deduced by an easy Process from the Property of a Circle, (known to every Cooper) which is this:

The Radius of every Circle is equal to the Chord of one fixth Part of its Periphery. That is, AD = DH = HG, the Chords of one third Part of the Semicircle, are each equal to AF its Radius. Then if the Arch AD be trifected, it

will be AB = BZ = ZD.

Let $\begin{cases} R = AF = 1 \\ c = AD = 1 \\ a = AB$. Quære a.

Then $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & R: a:: a: \frac{aa}{R} = Be & A \end{vmatrix}$ $And 2 \quad R: a:: R - \frac{aa}{R}: c - 2a$ That is, $\begin{cases} FB: BZ:: Fe: ex = AD - 2a \\ \triangle AFB, \text{ and } \triangle BAe, \text{ are alike.} \end{cases}$ And AB = Ae = Dx, &c.

2 $\therefore ARc - 2Ra = Ra - \frac{aaa}{R}$ $A \times &c$. $\begin{cases} 3R^2a - aaa = RRc. & \text{That is, } 3a - aaa = 1 \\ \text{Here } a = \text{the Chord of } \frac{1}{18} \text{ Part of the Circle.} \end{cases}$ For $\frac{1}{3} \text{ of } \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{18}$

Next, To trifeEt the Arch AB.

Let
$$3y - y^3 = a$$
 the laft Chord.
2 $27y^3 - 27y^5 + 9y^7 - y^9 = a^3$
1 \times 3 $3y - 3y^3 = 3a$
3 - 2 $4y - 30y^3 + 27y^5 - 9y^7 + y^9 = 3a - a^3 = 1$
Here $y =$ the Chord of $\frac{1}{54}$ Part of the Circle.

Again, To trifest the Arch whereof y is the Chord.

Let
$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 3a - a^3 = y \\ 2 & 7a^3 - 27a^5 + 9a^7 - a^9 = y^3 \\ 3 & 243a^5 - 405a^7 + 270a^9 - 90a^{11} + 15a^{13} - a^{15} = y^5 \\ 1 & 6 & 7 \end{vmatrix}$$

Proceeding on in this Method of continually trifecting the Arch of every new Chord, and still connecting the produced Equations into one, as in the two last Trifections, 'twill not be difficult to obtain the Chord of any affign'd Arch, how small soever it be.

Now, in order to facilitate the Work of raising these Æquations to any considerable Height, 'twill be convenient to add a few useful Observations concerning their Nature, and of such Contractions as may be safely made in them; which, being well understood, will render the Work very easy.

- I. I have observ'd, that every Trisection will gain or advance one Figure in the Circle's Periphery, but no more. Therefore so many Places of Figures as are at first design'd to be perfect in the Periphery, so many Trisections must be repeated to raise an Equation that will produce a Chord answerable to that Design.
- 2. I have also found, that all the superior Powers (of a) whose Indices are greater than the Number of Trisections, (viz. whose Indices are greater than the Number of design'd Figures) may be wholly rejected as insignificant.
- 3. When once the Number of Trisections, and thence the highest Power (of a) is determined, the third Process (viz. the third Trisection) may be made a fix'd or constant Ganon; for by it, and Multiplication only, all the succeeding Trisections (how many soever they are) may be compleated without repeating the several Involutions.

4. In raising and collecting the Co-efficients of the several Powers (of a) 'twill be sufficient to retain only so many significant Figures (at a3) as there is designed to be Places of Figures in the Periphery (or at most but two more) and every succeeding superior Power may be allow'd to decrease two Places of significant Figures: But herein great Care must be taken to supply the Places, of those Figures that are omitted, with Cyphers, that so the whole and exact Number of Places may be truly adjusted; otherwise all the Work will be erroneous.

Now the Number of those supplying Cyphers may be very conveniently denoted by Figures placed within a Parenthesis, thus: 576 (8) a3, may signify 57600000000a3, as in the following Æquations. The like may be done with Decimal Parts, thus: (,7)658 may signify,000000658, &c. which will be found very useful in the Solution of

these and the like Equations.

The aforesaid Contractions may be safely made, because both the superior Powers of a, which are rejected; as also those Numbers that are omitted in the Co-efficients (and supply'd with Cyphers) would produce Figures so very remote from Unity, as that they would not affect the Chord design'd; that is, they would not affect the Chord in that Place wherein the design'd Periphery is concerned;

as will in Part appear in the following Example.

If these Directions be carefully minded, 'twill be easy to raise an Equation that will produce the Side of a regular Polygon, whose Number of Sides shall be vastly numerous, consequently infinitely small: But, I presume, 'twill be sufficient for an Example to find the Side of a Polygon consisting of 258280326 equal Sides; that is, if I find the Chord of \(\frac{1}{258280326}\) Part of the Circle's Periphery, and that requires but fixteen Trifections, which being order'd, as before directed, will produce this \(\tilde{E}\) quation.

$$\left\{
\begin{array}{l}
+3046721a - 332360179486968612(4)a^{3} \\
+769837653199714(20)a^{5} - 8491218532841(35a^{7}) \\
+54633331143(50)a^{9} - 230083348(66)a^{11} \\
+6830988(79)a^{13} - 15072(94)a^{15}
\end{array}
\right\} = 1$$

Here the Value of a will have 23 Places of Figures true; that is, the Sides of the inscrib'd and circumscrib'd Polygons will be exactly the same to 23 Places of Decimal Parts, but no farther; all which may be easily obtain'd at two Operations. And for the first, 'twill be sufficient to take only three Terms of the Ægaation, which will admit of being yet farther contracted, thus:

```
Let \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 43046721a - 3323601794(12)a^3 \\ +76983765(27)a^5 \end{array} \right\} = 1
```

And let r + e = a; then rejecting all the Powers of e, that arise by Involution above eee,

It will be $r^3 + 3rre + 3ree + eee \equiv aaa$ And $r^5 + 5r^4e + 10r^3ee + 10rreee \equiv a^5$

Then the first single Value of r may be thus found:

43046721) 1,00000000 (,00000002 = r

This ,00000002 $\equiv r$ being duly involv'd, and its Powers multiply'd into their respective Co-efficients, will produce

+,86093441+43046721e -,02658881 - 3988322e - 199416(9)ee - 3324(18)eee = 1 +,00024635 + 61587e + 6159(9)ee + 308(18)eee

viz.,83459196+39119986e- 193257(9)ee-3016(18)eee=1 Hence 39119986e - 193257(9)ee - 3016(18)ee = 0,16540804

All the Terms of this last Æquation being divided by 193257(9) the Co-efficient of ee, it will then become ,0000002024e-ee-,156(5)eee=,00000000000008558968=D

Consequently, $\left\{ \frac{D+156(5)eee}{,000002024-e} = e \right\}$

Operation. ,0000002024) ,000000000000008558968 (,000000004= ,0000000043:+,000000000000000009984 = 156(5) eee

1 Di.,000000198) ,000000000000008568952 (,000000004327

2 Di. ,0000001981 792 6489

5943 5465

First r = 0,000000023962

+ = ,000000004327 *ල්.*.

Or rather new r for a second r + e = ,000000024327 = a.Operation.

Now, if this first Value of a = ,00000024327 were not continued to more Places of Figures by a second Operation, but only multiply'd into the Number of Chords, viz. ,00000024327 × 258280326 = 6,28318539, &c. the Periphery of that Circle whose Diameter is 2, nearer than either Archimedes, or Mœtius's Proportion: For

Archimedes makes it 6,285714, &c. viz. As 7 to 22. And Mœ-

tius makes it 6,28318584, &c. viz. As 113 to 355.

But if the whole *Equation* before propos'd be now taken, and we proceed to a fecond *Operation*, the Value of a may be increas'd with twelve Places of *Figures* more, and those may be obtain'd by plain *Division* only.

Thus, let r + e = a, as before, and let all the Powers of e be now rejected as infignificant;

Then will
$$\begin{cases} r + e = a \\ r^3 + 3r^2e = a^3 \\ r^5 + 5r^4e = a^5 \\ r^7 + 7r^6e = a^7 \end{cases}$$
 and
$$\begin{cases} r^9 + 9r^8e = a^9 \\ r^{11} + 11r^{10}e = a^{11} \\ r^{13} + 13r^{12}e = a^{13} \\ r^{15} + 15r^{14}e = a^{15} \end{cases}$$

The feveral Powers of r = ,000000024327 being rais'd, and multiply'd into their respective Co-efficients, will produce these following Numbers:

Viz. 1,000000026474745106 + 37279554e = 1

Hence 37279554e = -0,000000026474745106 = D: Or rather -37279554e = 0,000000026474745106 = DConsequently, $\left\{ \frac{D}{37279554} = -e \right\}$

Operation.

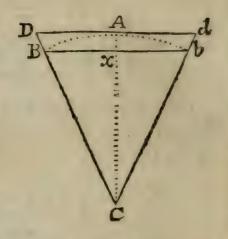
37279554),000000026474745106((,15)710167967 = $-\epsilon$ 260956878

Last
$$r = ,000000024327$$

 $-e = ,00000000000000710167967$

r - e = ,000000024326999289832033 = a the Chord or Side of the Polygon required.

The next Work will be to examine how many Places of these Figures will hold true to the Circle's Periphery: In order to that, let a be represented by the Chord B b, in the annexed



Dd × 258280326 will be the Perimeter of the Circumscribing Polygon. That is, 6,2831853071795859 = the Perimeter of the Inscrib'd Polygon. And, 6,2831853071795865 = the Perimeter of the Circumscrib'd Polygon.

Hence 'tis evident, that the Circle's Periphery, whose Diameter is 2, may be concluded 6,2831853071795864 true, because the Perimeters of the inscrib'd and circumscrib'd Polygons are so far very near being Co-incident, or the same.

'Tis possible there may be some who will think this is tedious and troublesome Work; but if those please to consider, that, if this Periphery were to be sound by the aforesaid Method of Bisection, it would require these sollowing Extractions:

Here the first Root (viz. \(\sigma\) 3) must be extracted at least to one hundred and two Places of Figures. The second Root

(viz. $\sqrt{2}$: $2+\sqrt{3}$) must have 99 Places of Figures in it. The third Root (viz. $\sqrt{2}$: $2+\sqrt{3}$) must have 96 Places in it, &c. every Extraction being allow'd to decrease three Places, that so the last Root (viz. the Chord sought) may consist of 24 Places of

Figures, as above.

I say, whoever duly considers the Trouble of these so often repeated Extractions will, I presume, be pleas'd with what I have done. For truly, when I consider the great Time and Care required in them, I cannot but admire at the Patience of the laborious Van Culen, who proceeded that Way until he had sound the Circle's Periphery to Thirty-six Places of Figures, to wit, 6,28318530717958647692528676655900576. These Numbers are said to be engraven upon his Tomb-Stone in St. Peter's Church in Leyden, for a Memorial of so great a Work.

Having thus obtain'd the Circle's Periphery, its Arch may easily be found (to the same Number of Figures) by Problem 6. That is, if Half the Periphery of any Circle be multiply'd into Half its Diameter, the Product will be that Circle's Area, as will appear farther on. Therefore 3,141592653589793 will be the Area of the Circle whose Diameter is 2.

Thus I have shew'd the young Geometer how to find the Circle's Periphery and Area to what Exactness he pleases to approach; for precisely true it cannot be found, notwithstanding the late Pretensions of a certain Frenchman who hath published to the World (in the Works of the Learned) that after twenty-five Years Study he had found the Quadrature of the Circle: But if he had perus'd the 83d Chapter of Dr. Wallis's Algebra, he might there have seen his Error, viz. the Impossibility of what he pretended to; for it is as impossible to square the Circle (that is, to find its true Area) as it is to find the Root of a Surd Number.

Note, What I have here propos'd and done by the Trisection of an Arch, may as easily and much more speedily be perform'd by Quinquesection or Septisection, &c. But because the Scheme for Trisection is more simple, and may be easier understood by a Learner than those of the other Sections (of which see my Compendium of Algebra, Pages 76 and 79) I have for that Reason made Choice of Trisection.

As to the Proportion of one Circle to another, and of the Circle to the Ellipsis, &c. those shall be fully shew'd when we come to the Fifth Part.

Before

Before I conclude this Part, I shall make some Use or Application of the above-sound Periphery, in finding the Quantity of Angles, which is done by the Help of Right-lines, call'd Sines and Tangents, the Length whereof are calculated to every Degree and Minute of a Quadrant, by much Labour. But I shall here shew how to find the natural Sine (and consequently the natural Tangent) of any propos'd Arch or Angle, by two Equations, without the Help of any precedent Sine, as usual; which I did some Years ago communicate to the ingenious Mr. Joseph Ralphson, and he so well approv'd of them as to make them the 20th and 21st Problems in the second Edition of his Analysis Equationum Universalis.

And because, in finding the Quantity of Angles, every Circle is supposed to be divided into 360 equal Parts, call'd Degrees; every Degree is subdivided into 60 Parts, call'd Minutes; and every

Minute into to Seconds, &c. (See Page 294.)

Therefore 360) 6,2831853, &c. (0,0174532925, &c. is an Arch of the above-found Periphery, equal to the Arch of one Degree. And 60) 0,0174532925, &c. (0,0002908882, &c. = the Arch

of one Minute.

Then if the given Arch (or Angle) be less than 45 Degrees, reduce it into Minutes, and multiply those Minutes into this constant Multiplicator, viz. 0,0002908882 calling the Product p. And for the Sine sought put a. Then it will be—aaaa + 12paaa — 195aa — 36ppaa + 240pa = 45pp.

Example.

Let it be required to find the Sine of 19°. 13'. = 1153'. Here $0.0002908882 \times 1153 = 0.3353940946 = p$. And $-a^4 + 4.024729a^3 - 199.049611aa + 80.494583a = 5.06201394$.

Let
$$r + e = a$$

 $rr + 2re + ee = aa$
Then $rrr + 3rre + ee = aaa$
 $rrrr + 4 rrre + 6rree = aaaa$

Note, In this Case the first r may always be taken equal to the first Figure in the Product = p. Viz. here r = 0,3 which being involved as its Powers direct, and those Powers multiply'd into the respective Co-efficients of the Equation; it will be

$$\begin{cases}
+24,1483 + 80,49e \\
-17,9144 - 119,43e - 199,05ee \\
+0,1086 + 1,08e + 3,62ee \\
-0,0081 - 0,11e - 0,54ee
\end{cases} = 5,06201394$$

Viz. 6,3344 - 37,97e - 135,97ee = 5,06201

r + e = 0.329 = r for a second Operation.

Which being involv'd and multiply'd, &c. as before, will produce these Numbers:

$$+26,48271781 + 80,49458e$$
 $-21,54532894 - 130,97464e - 199,0496ee$
 $+0,14332578 + 1,30692e + 3,9724ee$
 $-0,01171611 - 0,14244e - 0,6494ee$

Viz. 5,06899854 — 49,31558e — 195,7266ee = 5,06201394

Hence 49,31558e + 195,7266ee = ,0069846; which being divided by 195,7266 the Co-efficient of ee, will become ,25196e + ee = ,0000356854 = D

Then
$$\left\{ \frac{D}{,25196 + e} = e \right\}$$

Operation. 0,25196) ,0000356854 (0,0001415 =
$$e$$
 + e = 0,00014 2520

1. Divisor 0,2520 104854

2. Divisor 0,25210 100840

40140
25210

Laft r = 0,329 &c. + e = 0,0001415

r + e = a = 0.3291415 being the natural Sine of 90°. 13'. As was required.

Thus you may find the Right Sine of any Arch or Angle less than 45 Degrees.

But,

00

But, if the given Arch be greater than 45 Degrees, you must take its Complement to 90°. viz. subtract it from 90 Degrees, and reduce the Remainder into Minutes, as before. Then multiply the Square of these Minutes into this constant Multiplicator, 0,000000084616 calling their Product p, and putting a = the Sine sought, as before. Then will $a^4 + 28a^3 + 195aa + 36paa + 108pa - 28a = 196 - 81p$.

Example.

Suppose it were required to find the Sine of 75°. 32'. or (which is the same Thing) to find the Co-sine of 14°. 28'. \equiv 868', whose Square 753424 \times 0,000000084616 \equiv 0,06375172518 \equiv p. Hence the Equation in Numbers will be aaaa + 28aaa + 197,295062aa - 21,114814a \equiv 190,8361102588.

Let
$$r - e \equiv a$$
 And $r \equiv 1$
Then
$$\begin{cases} rr - 2re + ee \equiv aaa \\ rrrr - 3rre + 3ree \equiv aaaa \\ rrrr - 4rrre + 6rree \equiv aaaa \end{cases}$$

Note, I here take r = 1 because the Arch is so near to 90° and therefore I make it r = e = a.

for a second Operation; which, being involv'd as before, will produce these following Numbers:

$$-$$
 20,460254766 + 21,11481e
+ 185,252368710 - 382,35783e + 197,2951ee
+ 25,475889852 - 78,87272e + 81,5960ee
+ 0,881647759 - 3,63941e + 5,6337ee

Viz. 191,149651515 — 443,75515e + 284,5248ee = 190,836110259

Hence it will be 443,75515e - 284,5248ee = 0,313541256And 1,55963e - ee = ,0011019821 = D

Then
$$\left\{\frac{D}{1,55963-e}=e\right\}$$

Operation. 1,55963) 0,0011019821 (0,0007068 =
$$e$$
 = 0,00070 109123

Last r = 0.969-e = 0.0007068

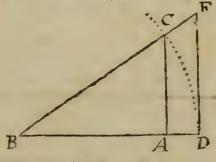
 $r - e \equiv a \equiv 0.9682932$ the Sine of 75°. 32'. as was required.

Having found the Sine and Co-sine of any Arch, the Tangent is usually found by this Proportion:

Viz. { As the Co-sine of any Arch: is to the Sine of that Arch:: so is, the Radius: to the Tangent of the same Arch.

For supposing BC = BD Radius, AC the Sine of the Arch

CD. Then BA is the Co-sine, and FD the Tangent of the same Arch. But BA: CA: BD: FD, &c. Now by this Proportion there is required to be given both the Sine and Co-sine of the Arch, to find the Tangent. 'Tis true, if the Radius, and either the Sine or the Co-sine be given,



the other may be found, thus, $\sqrt{\Box BC - \Box CA} = BA$. Or $\sqrt{\Box BC - \Box BA} = CA$. But, if either the Sine or Co-fine be given, the Tangent may (I presume) be more easily found by the following Theorems:

Let BC = 1. CA = S. BA = x and FD = T. Then, if S be given, T may be found by this

THEOREM
$$\left\{\sqrt{\frac{SS}{1-SS}}=T\right\}$$

Or if x be given, T may be found by this

THEOREM
$$\left\{ \sqrt{\frac{xx}{1-xx}} = T \right\}$$

Let the Sine of 90°. 13'. (before found) be given, viz. 0,3291415 = S, to find T the Tangent of the same Arch. First 0,3291415 \times ,3291415 = 0,108334127 = SS. Again 1 — 0,108334127 = 0,891665873 = 1 — SS. Then 0,891665873) 0,108334127 (0,1214963253 and \checkmark 0,1214963253 = 0,3485632 = T, the Tangent of 19°. 13'. As was required. And so you may proceed to find T = the Tangent, when x = the Co-sine is given.

Perhaps it may here be expected, that I should have shew'd and demonstrated (or at least have inserted) the Proportions from whence the foregoing Equations for making Sines were produced; but I have omitted that, as also their Use in computing the Sides and Angles of plain Triangles by the Pen only (viz. without the Help of Tables) for the Subject of my Discourse hereaster, if Health and Time permit.

In the mean Time, what is here done may suffice to shew, that the making of Sines by such a laborious and operose Way, as was formerly used, is in a great Measure overcome; which, I think,

I may justly claim as my own.

AN

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

Mathematicks.

PART IV.

CHAP. I.

Definitions of a Cone, and its Sections.

HERE are several Definitions given of a Cone: The Learned Dr. Barrow, upon Euclid, hath it thus:

A Cone (faith he) is a Figure made when one Side of

- " a Rectangle Triangle, (viz. one of those Sides that contain the Right Angle) remaining fix'd, the Triangle is turn'd round
- " about, 'till it return to the Place from whence it first moved:
- "And if the fix'd Right Line be equal to the other which con-
- " taineth the Right Angle, then the Cone is a Rectangled Cone:
- 66 but if it be less, 'tis an Obtuse-angled Cone; if greater, an Acute-
- " angled Cone. The Axis of a Cone is that fix'd Line about which
- "the Triangle is mov'd: The Base of a Cone is the Circle, which
- " is describ'd by the Right Line mov'd about."

" (Defin. 18, 19, 20. Euclid. 11.)

Sir Jonas Moor, in his Treatife of Conical Sections (taken out of the Works of Mydorgius) defines it thus:

- "If a Line of such a Length as shall be needful shall, upon a
- "Point fix'd above the Plain of a Circle, so move about the Cir-
- "cle, until it return to the Point from whence the Motion began, the Superficies that is made by such a Line is call'd a Conical
- "Superficies; and the folid Figure contain'd within that Superficies
- " and the Circle is call'd a Cone. The Point remaining fill is the

" Vertex of the Cone, &c."

Altho' both these Definitions are equally true, and, with a little Consideration, may be pretty easily understood; yet I shall here propose one very different from either of them; and, as I presume, more plain and intelligible, especially to a Learner.

If a Circle describ'd upon stiff Paper (or any other pliable Matter) of what Bigness you please, be cut into two, three, or more Sectors, either equal or unequal, and one of those Sectors be so roll'd up, as that the Radii may exactly meet each other, it will form a Conical

Superficies.

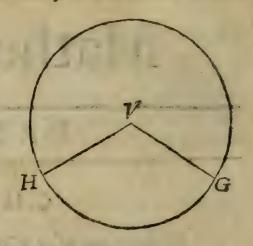
That is, if the Sector HVG be cut out of the Circle, and so roll'd up as that the Radii V H and VG may just meet each other in all their Parts, it will form a Cone, and the Center V will become a Solid Point, call'd the VERTEX of the Cone; the Radius VH, being every-where equal, will be the Side of the Cone, and the Arch HG will become a Circle, whose Area is call'd the Cone's Base.

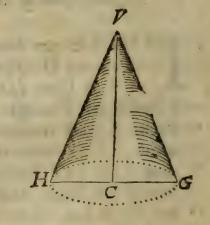
A Right Line being supposed to pass from the Vertex, or Point V, to the Center of the Cone's Base, as at C, that Line (viz. VC) will be the AXIS, or perpen-

dicular Height of the Cone.

If a Solid be actually made in fuch a Form, it will be a compleat or perfect Cone; which I shall all along calla Right Cone, because its Axis VC stands at Right Angles with the Plain of its Base HG, and its Sides are every-where equal.

Any Cone, whose Axis is not at Right Angles with the Plain of its Base, may be properly call'd an impersect Cone, because its Sides are not every-where equal (as in the annexed Figure.) Now, such an impersect Cone is usually call'd a Scalene, or Oblique Cone.







Any folid Cone may be cut by Plains (which I shall all along hereafter call Right Lines) into five Sections.

Seet.

Sett. I.

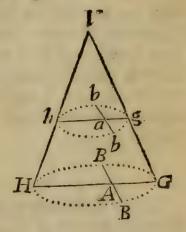
If a Right Cone be cut directly thro' its Axis, the Plain or Superficies of that Section will be a plain Isosceles Triangle, as HVG Fig. 2, viz. the Sides (HV and VG) of the Cone will be the Sides of the Triangle, the Diameter (HG) of the Cone's Base will be the Base of the Triangle, and (VC) its Axis will be the perpendicular Height of the Triangle.

Sect. 2.

If a Right Cone be cut (any where) off by a Right-line parallel to its Base, as h g (it will be easy to conceive, that) the Plain of that Section will be a Circle, because the Cone's Base is such: wherein one Thing ought to be clearly understood, which may be laid down as a Lemma, to demonstrate the Properties of the following Sections.

If any two Right Lines, inscrib'd within a Circle, do cut or cross each other (as h g doth b b in the annexed Figure) the Rectangle made of the Segments of one of the Lines will be equal to the Rectangle made of the Segments of the other Line. (See Theorem 15. Page 315.)

That is, $b \ a \times g \ a = b \ a \times a \ b$ and $A \times G A = B \ A \times A B$ and $A \times G A = B \ A \times A B$ consequently if ba = ab, and if B A = AB, then it will be $b \ a \times g \ a = \Box b \ a$, and in the Cone's Base $A \times G A = \Box B A$.



Sett. 3.

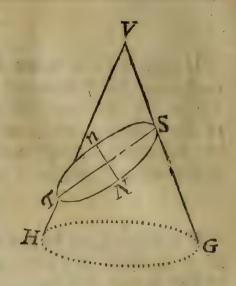
If a Right Cone be (any where) cut off by a Right Line that cuts both its Sides, but not parallel to its Base (as TS in the following Figure) the Plain of that Section will be an Ellipsis (vulgarly called an Oval) viz. an oblong or imperfect Circle, which hath several Diameters, and two particular Centers. That is,

1. Any Right Line that divides an Ellipsis into two equal Parts is call'd a Diameter; amongst which the longest and the shortest are particularly distinguish'd from the rest, as being of most general Use;

the other are only applicable to particular Cases,

2. The

- 2. The longest Diameter (as TS) is called the Transverse Diameter, or Transverse Axis, being that Right Line which is drawn thro' the Middle of the Ellipsis, and doth shew or limit its Length.
- 3. The shortest Diameter, call'd the Conjugate Diameter, is a Right Line that doth, intersect or cross the Transverse Diameter at Right Angles, in the Middle or common Center of the Ellipsis (as Nn) and doth limit the Ellipsis's Breadth.



- 4. The two Points, which I call particular Centers of an Ellipfis (for a Reason which shall be shew'd farther on) are two Points in the Transverse Diameter, at an equal Distance each Way from the Conjugate Diameter, and are usually call'd NODES, FOCI, or burning Points.
- nother, and can be divided into two equal Parts, are called ORDINATES with Respect to that Diameter which divides them: And if they are parallel to the Conjugate, viz. at Right Angles with the Transverse Diameter, then they are call'd Ordinates rightly apply'd. And those two that pass through the Foci are remarkable above the rest, which, being equal and situated alike, are call'd both by one Name, viz. LATUS RECTUM, or Right Parameter, by which all the other Ordinates are regulated and valued; as will appear farther on.

Se Et. 4.

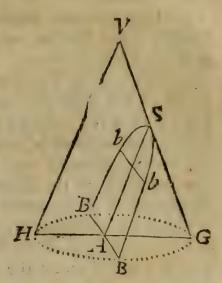
If any Cone be cut into two Parts by a Right-line parallel to one of its Sides (as S A in the following Scheme) the Plain of that Section (viz. Sb B A B b S) is call'd a PARABOLA.

- 1. A Right Line being drawn thro' the Middle of any Parabola (as SA) is call'd its Axis, or intercepted Diameter.
- 2. All Right Lines that intersect or cut the Axis at Right Angles (as B B and b b are supposed to cut or cross S A) are call'd Ordinates rightly apply'd (as in the Ellipsis) and the greatest Ordinate, as B B, which limits the Length of the Parabola's Axis (S A) is usually call'd the Base of the Parabola.

3. That

3. That Ordinate which passes thro' the Focus, or burning Point of the Parabola, is called the Latus Rectum, or Right Parameter (as in the Ellipsis) because by it all the other Ordinates are proportion'd, and may be found.

4. The Node, Focus, or burning Point of the Parabola, is a Point in its Axis (but not a Center, as in the Ellipsis) distant from the Vertex, or Top of the Section, (viz, from S) just 4 Part of the Latus Rectum; as shall be shewn farther on.



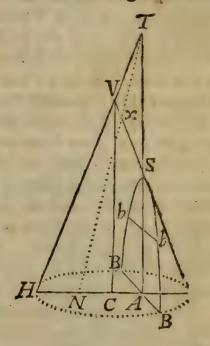
5. All Right Lines drawn within a Parabola parallel to its Axis are call'd Diameters; and every Right Line, that any of those Diameters doth bisect or cut into two equal Parts, is said to be an Ordinate to the Diameter which bisects it.

Sect. 5.

If a Cone be any where cut by a Right Line, either parallel to its Axis (as S A, or otherwise as x N) so as the cutting Line be-

ing continued thro' one Side of the Cone (as at S or x) will meet with the other Side of the Cone if it be continued or produced beyond the Vertex V, as at T; then the Plain of that Section (viz. the Figure S b B B b S) is call'd an HYPERBOLA.

the Middle of any Hyperbola, viz. within the Section (as SA, or xN) is call'd the Axis or intercepted Diameter (as in the Parabola) and that Part of it which is continued or produced out of the Section, until it meet with the other Side of the Cone continued, viz. TS or Tx, &c. is call'd the Transverse Diameter, or Transverse Axis of the Hyperbola.



2. All Right Lines that are drawn within an Hyperbola, at Right Angles to its Axis, are call'd Ordinates rightly apply'd; as in the Ellipsis and Parabola.

3. That Ordinate which passes thro' the Focus of the Hyperbola is call'd Latus Rectum, or Right Parameter, for the same Reason as in the other Sections.

4. The middle Point of the Transverse Diameter is call'd the Center of the Hyperbola: from whence may be drawn two Right Lines (out of the Section) call'd ASYMPTOTES, because they will always incline (that is, come nearer and nearer) to both Sides of the Hyperbola, but never meet with (or touch) them, altho' both they and the Sides of the Hyperbola were infinitely extended; as will plainly appear in its proper Place.

These five Sections, viz. the Triangle, Circle, Ellipsis, Parabola, and Hyperbola, are all the Plains that can possibly be produced from a Cone; but of them, the three last are only called Conick Sections,

both by the ancient and modern Geometers.

Scholium.

Besides the 'foregoing Definitions, it may not be amiss to add, by Way of Observation, how one Section may (or rather doth) change

or degenerate into another.

An Ellipsis being that Plain of any Section of the Cone which is between the Circle and Parabola, 'twill be easy to conceive that there may be great Variety of Ellipses produced from the same Cone; and when the Section comes to be exactly parallel to one Side of the Cone, then doth the Ellipsis change or degenerate into Now a Parabola, being that Section whose Plain is always exactly parallel to the Side of the Cone, cannot vary, as the Ellipsis may; for so soon as ever it begins to move out of that Position (viz. from being parallel to the Cone's Side) it degenerates either into an Ellipsis, or into an Hyperbola: That is, if the Section incline towards the Plain of the Cone's Base, it becomes an Ellipsis; but if it incline towards the Cone's Vertex, it becomes an Hyperbola, which is the Plain of any Section that falls between the Parabola and the Triangle. And therefore there may be as many Varieties of Hyperbola's produced from one and the same Cone, as there may be Ellipses.

To be brief, a Circle may change into an Ellipsis, the Ellipsis into a Parabola, the Parabola into an Hyperbola, and the Hyperbola into a plain Isasceles Triangle: And the Center of the Circle, which is its Focus or burning Point, doth, as it were, part or divide itself into two Foci so soon as ever the Circle begins to degenerate into an Ellipsis; but when the Ellipsis changes into a Parabola, one End of it slies open, and one of its Foci vanishes, and

the remaining Focus goes along with the Parabola when it degenerates into an Hyperbola: And when the Hyperbola degenerates into a plain Isosceles Triangle, this Focus becomes the vertical Point of the Triangle (viz. the Vertex of the Cone); fo that the Center of the Cone's Base may be truly said to pass gradually through all the Sections, until it arrives at the Vertex of the Cone, still carrying its Latus Rectum along with it: For the Diameter of a Circlebeing that Right Line which passes through its Center or Focus, and by which all other Right Lines drawn within the Circle are regulated and valued, may (I presume) be properly called the Circle's Latus Rectum: and although it loses the Name of Diameter when the Circle degenerates into an Ellipsis, yet it retains the Name of Latus Rectum, with its first Properties, in all the Sections, gradually shortening as the Focus carries it along from one Section to another, until at last it and the Focus become co-incident, and terminate in the Vertex of the Cone.

I have been more particular and fuller in these Definitions than is usual in Books of this Subject, which I hope is no Fault, but will prove of Use, especially to a Learner: And altho' they may perhaps seem a little strange, and at first hard to be understood, yet, when they are well considered, and compar'd with a Cone cut into such Sections as have been defined, they will not only be found true, but will also help to form a true and clear Idea of each Section.

CHAP. II.

Concerning the Chief Properties of an Elliptis.

NOTE, If the transverse Diameter of an Ellipsis, as TS in the following Figure, be intersected or divided into any two Parts by an Ordinate rightly apply'd, as at the Points A, C, a, &c. then are those Parts TA, TC, Ta, and SA, SC, Sa, &c. usually called Abscissæ (which signifies Lines or Parts cut off) and by the Rectangle of any two Abscissæ is meant the Rectangle of such two Parts as, being added together, will be equal to the Transverse Diameter.

As TA + SA = TS. And TC + SC = TS. Or TA + SA = TS, &c.

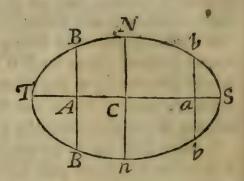
Section 1.

Every Ellipsis is proportion'd, and all such Lines as relate to it are regulated, by the Help of one general Theorem.

THEOREM.

As the Rectangle of any two Abscissæ: is to the Square of Half the Ordinate which divides them: : so is the Rectangle of any other two Abscissæ: to the Square of Half that Ordinate which divides them.

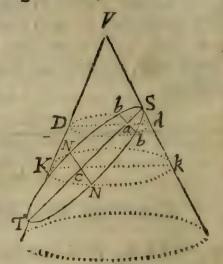
That is, $TA \times SA : \Box BA : : Ta \times Sa : \Box ba$ $TA \times SA : \Box BA : : TC \times SC : \Box NC$ $TC \times SC : \Box NC : : Ta \times Sa : \Box ba$ &c.



Demonstration.

Let the annexed Figure represent a Right Cone, cut thro' both

Sides by the Right Line TS; then will the Plain of that Section be an Ellipsis (by Sect. 3. Chap. 1.) TS will be the Transverse Diameter, NCN and bab will be Ordinates rightly apply'd; as before. Again, if the Lines Dd and Kk be parallel to the Cone's Base, they will be Diameters of Circles (by Sect. 2. Chap. 1.) Then will $\triangle TCK$ and TaD be alike. Also, $\triangle Sad$ and $\triangle SCk$ will be alike.



Ergo | I | Sa : ad :: SC : Ck } per Theorem 13.

1 : 3 | Sa × Ck = ad × SC |
2 : 4 | Ta × CK = TC × aD |
2 | X | 3 | Sa × Ck × Ta × CK = ad × SC × TC × aD. Per Axiom 3.

But | 6 | CK × Ck = \Box | NC | Per Lemma Sect. 2.

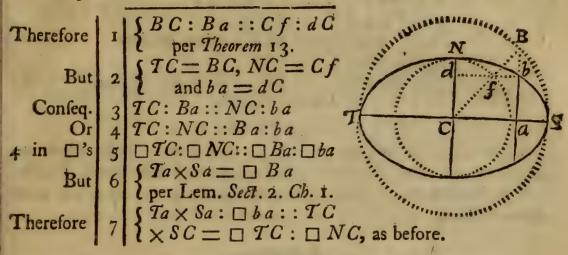
And | 7 | aD × ad = \Box | ba | Per Lemma Sect. 2.

Then | for CK × Ck, and aD × ad, take \Box NC and \Box ba |
5, 6, 7 | 8 | Sa × Ta × \Box NC = TC × SC × \Box ba. Per Axiom 5.

Hence | 9 | Sa × Ta : \Box | ba :: TC × SC : \Box NC. See Page 194.

Q. E. D.

Or, the Truth of these Proportions may be otherwise prov'd by a Circle, without the Help of the Cone; thus: Let any Ellipsis be circumscrib'd and inscrib'd with Circles, as in the following Figure; then from any Point in the circumscrib'd Circle's Periphery, as at B, draw the Right Line B a, parallel to the semi-conjugate Diameter N c, then will b a be a Semi-ordinate rightly apply'd to the transverse Diameter T S, as before. Again, from the Point b (in the Ellipsis's Periphery) draw the Right Line b d parallel to the Transverse T S; and draw the Radius B C. Then will \triangle B C a and \triangle C f d be alike.



And so for any other Abscissa and their Semi-ordinates.

These Proportions being found to be the true and common Properties of every Ellipsis, all that is farther required in (or about) that Section may be easily deduced from them.

Sect. 2. To find the Latus Rectum, or Right Parameter of any Ellipsis.

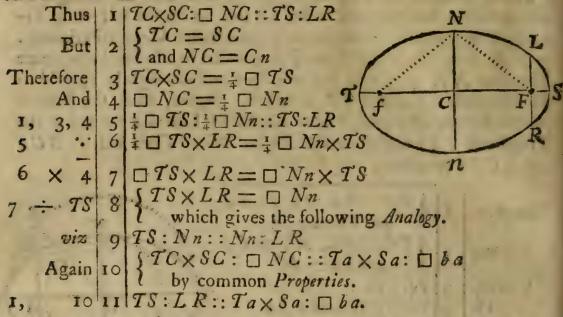
There are several Ways of finding the Latus Rectum, but I think none so easy, and shews it so plainly to be the Third Principal Line in the Ellipsis, as the following.

THEOREM. { As the Transverse Diameter: is in Proportion to the Conjugate: fo is the Conjugate: to the Latus Rectum. Viz. (in the following Fig.) TS: Nn:: Nn: LR the Latus Rectum.

Demonstration.

From the last Proportions take either of the Antecedents, and its Consequent, viz. either $TC \times SC: \square NC$, or $Ta \times Sa: \square ba$, Bbb

and make TS the third Term, to which find a fourth Proportional, and it will be $\equiv L R$:



From hence 'tis evident that LR, thus found, is that Ordinate by which the other Ordinates may be regulated and found. Therefore (according to its Definition Sect. 3, Chap. 1.) it is the true Latus Rectum. Q. E. D.

Consectary.

Hence it follows, that if the transverse and conjugate Diameters of any Ellipsis are given (either in Lines or Numbers) the Latus Restum may be easily found; and then any Ordinate, whose Distance from the Conjugate is given, may be found, as above.

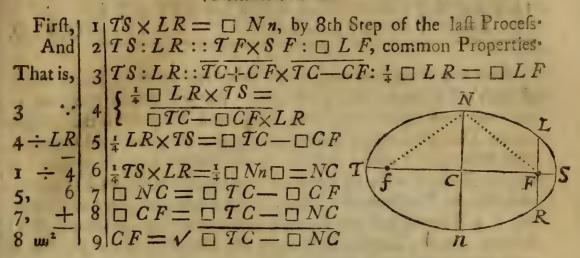
Sect. 3. To find the Focus of any Ellipsis.

The Focus is the Distance of the Latus Rectum from the Conjugate or Middle of the Ellipsis (vide Definition 4, Page 364.) and that Distance is always a Mean Proportional between the half Sum and half Difference of the transverse and conjugate Diameters, which gives this Theorem.

THEOREM. From the Square of half the Transverse subtract the Square of half the Conjugate, the square Root of their Difference will be the Distance of each Focus from the Middle or common Center of the Ellipsis.

That is, supposing the Points f and F to be the two Foci, viz. fC = Cf, and $TC = \frac{1}{2}TS$. $NC = \frac{1}{2}Nn$. Then, TC + NC: fC :: FC :: TC - NC. Ergo $\Box FC = TC - \Box NC$. Consequently, $FC = \sqrt{\Box TC - \Box NC}$.

Demonstration.



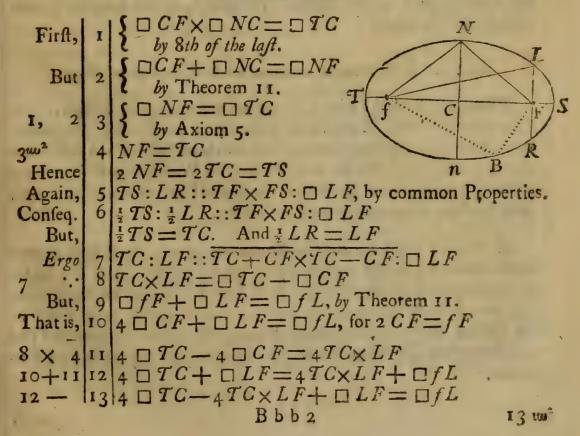
Now from hence is deduced that notable Proposition, upon which is grounded the usual Method of describing an Ellipsis, and drawing of Tangents, &c.

Proposition.

If from the two Foci of any Ellipsis there be drawn two Right Lines, so as to meet each other in any Point of the Ellipsis's Periphery, the Sum of those Lines will be equal to the Transverse.

Viz. $fN \times NF = TS$. $fL \times LF = TS$. Or fB + BF = TS, &c.

Demonstration.



$$13 \text{ w}^2$$
 $14 + LF$
 15
 $2 \text{ TC} = fL + LF$. But $2 \text{ TC} = \text{TS}$
 $TS = fL + LF$. Q. E. D.

And this Proposition must needs hold true to every Point in the Ellipsis's Periphery, viz. at B, &c. As will evidently appear to any one who rightly considers, That, as a Thread just the Length of the Diameter of any Circle having its two Ends ty'd together, and then mov'd about a Point in the Center (viz. by making it a double Radius) will, by drawing another Point in its Extremity, describe the Periphery of a Circle; [vide Definition Page 280] even so, if a Thread just the Length of the transverse Diameter (TS) having its two Ends so fix'd upon the two Foci (f and F) that it may be mov'd about them, by drawing a Point in its Extremity (viz. at its full Stretch) it will describe the true Periphery of an Ellipsis.

Now, altho' this easy Way of describing, or, as usually phras'd, drawing an Ellipsis, be mechanical, and known even to most foiners, Carpenters, &c. yet it gives as compleat and clear an Idea of that Figure as any other Way whatsoever; and by describing it thus about its two Foci, as a Circle is about its Center, doth plainly shew that those two Points are not improperly call'd particular Centers in Definition 4, Sect. 3, Chap. 1. for each of them bears much the same Respect to the Ellipsis's Periphery, as the Circle's Center

doth to its Periphery.

Sect. 4. To describe or delineate an Ellipsis several Ways.

There are feveral (other) Ways of describing an Ellipsis, both Geometrically and Numerically, according to peculiar Occasions, but I shall only mention two or three of them, leaving the rest to the Learner's Genius. Now, in order to that Work, it will be convenient to consider what Lines are requisite to limit or bound its Form, which I take to be chiefly these following.

1. If the Transverse and Conjugate are given, the Ellipsis is perfectly limited; (vide Consectary Page 363.) for if TS and Nn be set at Right Angles in their Middle at C, and TC or CS be set off from N, or n, both Ways upon the Transverse to f and F, (viz. make f N = TC = NF) then will those Points f and F be the two Foci (by 4th Step of the last Process) and then the Ellipsis may be described as above.

2. If the Transverse Diameter and Latus Rectum are given, the Ellipsis is truly limited, because by them the Conjugate may be

found, by Sect. 2.

3. Or if only the Transverse, and the Proportion it hath either to the Conjugate or Latus Rectum, be given, the Ellipsis is thereby limited. As for Instance; suppose the given Ratio between the Transverse and Conjugate to be, as a: to d:

Viz.
$$a:d::TS:Nn$$
, then $\frac{TS\times d}{a}=Nn$, &c.

4. If either the Transverse or Conjugate, and the Distance of the Focus from the Conjugate be given, the Ellipsis is limited, because by them the Conjugate or Transverse may be found.

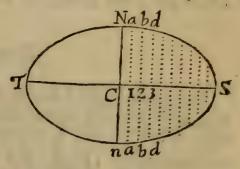
These being premis'd, and the precedent Work a little consider'd, it must be easy to describe or delineate any Ellipsis in Plano, either

Geometrically or Numerically.

1. To describe an Ellipsis Numerically by Points.

Suppose the Transverse Diameter TS = 20, and the Conjugate

Nn = 12, (either Inches, or any other equal Parts) and let them cross each other at Right Angles in their Middles, as in the Point C; then will TC = CS = 10, and NC = Cn = 6, and it will be 20:12::12:7, 2 =the Latus Rectum.



Again 20: 7, 2. Or rather take their Ratio.

Thus
$$\begin{cases} 1:0, 36: : 10+1 \times 10-1: \Box a. \parallel 1. \\ 1:0, 36: : 10+2 \times 10-2: \Box b. \parallel 2. \\ 1:0, 36: : 10+3 \times 10-3: \Box d. \parallel 3. &c. \end{cases}$$

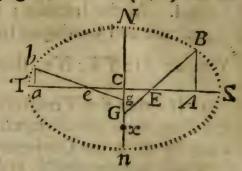
$$Viz. \begin{cases} 100-1 \times 0, 36 = \Box a.1. \text{Hence} \sqrt{90 \times 0} = 5,97 &c. = a. 1. \\ 100-4 \times 0, 36 = \Box b.2. & \sqrt{90 \times} = 5,88 &c. = b. 2. \\ 100-9 \times 0, 36 = \Box d.3. & \sqrt{91 \times 0, 36} = 5,72 &c. = d. 3. \end{cases}$$

If so many Semi-ordinates as may be thought convenient (the more the better) be sound in this Manner, and every one of them be set off at Right Angles from its respective Point in the Transverse Diameter each Way, viz. from 1 to a, from 2 to b, from 3 to d, &c. Then if a Curve Line be carefully drawn with an even Hand thro' those extreme Points a, b, d, &c. it will be the Ellipsis's Periphery requir'd.

2. To describe an Ellipsis Geometrically by Points.

Having the Transverse and Conjugate Diameters given, viz. TS and Nn, placed at Right Angles in their Middles, as before: Then from either End of the Conjugate, viz. N (or n) set off

half the Transverse Diameter to x. That is, make Nx = TC (continuing the Conjugate Nn when it is shorter than TC) Or, which is all one, make Cx = TC - NC. Then take any Point in the Line Cx at Pleasure; suppose it at G, and from that Point at G set off the Distance Cx to the Transverse



(as at E) viz. make GE = Cx, and join the Points GE with a Right Line, produced so far beyond E as to make EB = NC. Consequently GB = TC.

Then, I say, where-ever the Point G was taken between G and x, the Point B will just touch (or fall in) the Ellipsis's Periphery.

Demonstration.

Draw the Right Line BA perpendicular to TS, viz. let BA be a Semi-ordinate rightly apply'd to the transverse Diameter TS; then $\triangle GCE$ and $\triangle BAE$ will be alike.

```
I \mid CE : AE :: EG : EB, by Theorem 13.
Confequently
                   2|CE + AE : AE :: EG + EB : EB. Seep. 192.
        I, and
                   3 CE + AE = CA.EG \times EB = TC. And EB = NC
           Butl
    Therefore
                      CA:AE::TC:NC
                   4
6, in
           □'s
                      \Box CA: \Box AE:: \Box TC: \Box NC
                   5
                      \square CA \times \square NC
                   6
   5,
                            TIC
           But
                      \square NC - \square AB = \square AE
     That is,
                      \Box EB - \Box AB = \Box AE
                      \square CA \times \square NC
                                         = \square NC - \square AB
                 9 \square CA \times \square NC = \square NC \times \square TC - \square AB \times \square TC
8 × 🗆 7 S
                      \square NC \times \square TC - \square CA \times \square NC = \square AB \times \square TC
                 IO
10, Analogy II \square TC: \square NC::\square TC - \square CA: \square AB
     That is, 12 TC \times CS : \sqcap NC :: \overline{TC + CA} \times \overline{TC - CA} : \sqcap AB
```

which is according to the common *Properties* of the *Ellipsis*: Therefore the Point B is truly found. Q. E. D.

Hence

Hence it follows, that if a convenient Number of such Lines as GEB be so drawn (as above directed) from the like Number of Points taken between C and x, &c. their extream Points (as at B) will be those Points by which (with an even Hand) the Ellipsis

may be truly describ'd, as before.

But, if this be well understood, it will be very easy to conceive how to describe an Ellipsis very readily, without drawing those Lines, by having a thin, streight, narrow Ruler just the Length of TC, made somewhat sharp at both Ends, upon which, from one of its Ends, set off the Length of NC. Then, if the Point upon the Ruler which represents E be gradually or easily moved along the Transverse TS, and at the same Time the Point or End representing G be kept sliding close along the Conjugate Nn, 'tis evident from the Work above, that the End of the Ruler representing E will, by that Motion, assign the true E eriphery of the E llipsis required; for by that Motion the streight Edge of the Ruler doth supply an infinite Number of the aforesaid Lines; as will appear very plain and easy in Practice.

Scholium.

Now from hence was deduced the first Invention of that well-contrived Instrument for drawing an Ellipsis by one Motion, commonly called the Elliptical Compasses, being usually made of Brass, and compos'd of three Parts, two of which represent (or rather supply) the transverse and conjugate Diameters set together at Right Angles; and the third Part is a moveable Ruler, which performs the Office of the last-mentioned thin Ruler. But because the making of it is so well known to most Mathematical Instrument-makers, especially to that accurate and ingenious Artist Mr JOHN ROWLEY, Mathematical Instrument-maker, under St. Dunstan's Church in Fleet-street, London; who, for his great Skill in contriving, framing, and graduating all kind of Mathematical Instruments, may, I believe, be justly called one of the best Workmen of his Trade in Europe; I think it needless therefore to give a particular Description of that Instrument.

Also from hence came that ingenious Invention of making Engines for turning all Sorts of elliptical or eval Work, as eval Boxes, Picture-Frames, &c.

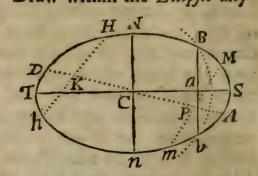
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the

Sect. 5. Any Ellipsis being given, to find its Transverse and Conjugate Diameters.

Suppose the given Ellipsis to be TNS n (in the annexed Scheme) in which let it be required to find the transverse Diameter TS and its Conjugate Nn. Draw within the Ellipsis any

two Right Lines parallel to each other as Hh and Mm, and bisect those Lines, viz. find the Middle Point of each, as at K and P; then thro' those Points K and P draw a Right Line, as D A, and it will be a Diameter; for it will divide the Ellipsis into two equal



Parts, [See Defin. 1, Page 363.] consequently the Middle of D A will be the true Middle or common Center of the Ellipsis, as at C.

For 'tis the Nature and Property of all Diameters, how soever they are drawn in any Ellipsis (as 'tis in a Circle) to cut or cross one another in the common Center or Middle of the Figure, as at C.

Upon the Point C describe an Arch of any Circle that will cut the Ellipsis's Periphery in two Points, as at B and b; then join those Points B b with a Right Line, and it will be an Ordinate, thro' whose Middle (as at a) and the common Center C, the transverse Diameter TS must pass. For BS = Sb, and B a is at Right Angles with TS; therefore the Line B b is an Ordinate rightly apply'd to TS the transverse Diameter. And if thro' the Point C there be drawn the Right Line Nn parallel to Bb, it will become the Conjugate; as was requir'd.

Sect. 6. To draw a Mangent, or Right Line that may touch the Ellipsis's Periphery in any assigned Point.

The Drawing of Tangents to or from any assigned Point in the

Ellipsis's Periphery, admits of three Cases.

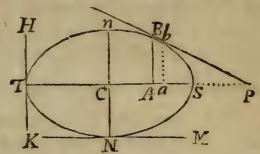
Case 1. If it be requir'd to draw a Tangent that may touch the Ellipsis in either of the extream Points of its transverse Diameter, as at T or S, it is plain the Tangent must be drawn parallel to the conjugate Diameter Nn; as HK in the following Figure is supposed to be:

Case 2. Or, if the Tangent must be drawn to touch the Ellipsis in either of the extream Points of its Conjugate Diameter, as at N or n, 'tis as evident that it must be drawn parallel to the Transverse Diameter T S, as K M. Consequently if that Tangent

and the Transverse were both infinitely continu'd, they would

never meet.

Case 3. But if it be requir'd to draw a Tangent that may touch the Ellipsis in any other Point, as at B, &c. Then, if



the Tangent and the Transverse Diameter be both continu'd, they will meet in some Point, as at P; and those two Points (viz. B and P) do so mutually depend upon each other, that one of them must be affigned in order to find the other, that so the Tangent may by them be truly drawn. Let $D \equiv TS$, $y \equiv AS$, and $z \equiv AP$. Then, if y be given, z may be found by this

Theorem $\left\{ \frac{Dy - yy}{\frac{1}{2}D - y} = z \right\}$. Or, if z be given, y may be found by

this Theorem
$$\left\{ \frac{D+z}{z} \pm \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{DD+zz}{4} = y \right\}} \right\}$$

Demonstration.

Draw the Semi-ordinate ba, as in the Figure; then will $\triangle BAP$ and $\triangle baP$ be alike. Put x = Aa the Distance between the two Semi-ordinates (viz. between BA and ba) which we suppose infinitely small.

Then But 2
$$D-y \times y: D-y+x \times y-x:: \Box BA: \Box ba$$
That is, 3 $Dy-yy: Dy-yy+2bx-Dx-xx:: \Box BA: \Box ba$
I in \Box 's 4 $zz: zz-2zx+xx:: \Box BA: \Box ba$
Suppose 5 $zz: zz-2zx+xx:: \Box BA: \Box ba$
3, Then 6 $zz: zz-2z: \Box ba$
4, And 7 $zz: zz-2z: \Box ba$
6, 7 $zz: zz-2z: \Box ba$
6, 7 $zz: zz-2z: \Box ba$
8 $zz: zz-2z: \Box ba$
9 $zz: zz-2z: \Box ba$
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The Geometrical Performance of these two Theorems is very easy, as by the following Figure.

1. Suppose the Point B in the Ellipsis Periphery were given,

and it were requir'd to find the Point P, &c.

Make TC Radius, and upon the common Center C describe the Semicircle TdS, and join the Points C and d with a Right Line; then bisect that Line (by Prob. 2, Page 287) and mark the Point where the bisecting Line would cross the Transverse, as at || e. Upon that Point || e, with the Radius Ce (or Cd) describe another Semicircle, producing the Transverse Diameter to its Periphery, and it will assign the Point P.

For if $D \equiv TS$, $y \equiv AS$, $z \equiv AP$, as before.

Therefore the Point P is truly found. Consequently, if a Right Line be drawn through those Points B and P, it will be the Tangent requir'd, according to the first Theorem.

2. The Converse of this is as easy, to wit, if the Point P be given, thence to find the Point B in the Ellipsis Periphery. Thus, circumscribe half the Ellipsis with the Semicircle TdS, as before; and bisect the Distance between the Points C and P, as at e, viz. Let Ce = eP. Then making Ce Radius, upon the Point c, describe the Semicircle CdP; and from the Point where the two Semicircles intersect or cross each other, as at d, draw the Right Line dA perpendicular to the Transverse TS, and it will assign the

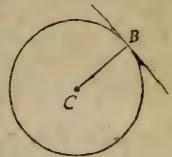
the Point of Contact B in the Ellipsis Periphery through which

the Tangent must pass.

But the Practical Method of drawing Tangents to any affign'd Point in the Ellipsis Periphery may (without finding the aforesaid Point P) be easily deduced from the following Property of Tangents drawn to a Circle, which is this:

If to any Radius of a Circle, as CB, there be drawn a Tangent Line (as HK) to touch the Radius at the Point B; the two Angles, which the Tangent makes with the Radius, will always be two Right Angles (16, 17, 18, 19 Euclid 3.) that is,

HBC = CBK = 90°.



In like Manner the two Angles, made between the Tangent and the two Lines drawn from the Foci of any Ellipsis to the Point of Contact, will always be equal, but not Right Angles, save only at the two Ends of the Transverse Diameter.

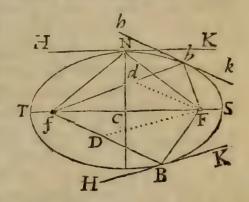
These being well consider'd, and compar'd with what hath been said in Page 366, it must needs be easy to understand the following Way of drawing Tangents to any assign'd Point in the Ellipsis Peri-

phery; which is thus:

Having by the transverse and conjugate Diameters sound the two Foci f and F, by Sect. 3. from them draw two Right Lines to

meet each other in the assign'd Point of Contact, as f b and F b (or f B and F b) in the annex'd Figure. Next set off (viz. make) b d = b F (or B D = B F) and join the Points F d (or F D) with a Right Line.

Then, I say, if a Right Line be drawn through the Point of Contact b (or B) parallel to d F, or D F, it will be the Tangent required. For



it is plain, that as the fNH = FNK when the Tangent is parallel to the Transverse Diameter, even so is the fbh = FBk, (and fBH = FBK) and will be every where so, as the Point of Contast b (or B) and its Tangent is carried about the Ellipsis Periphery with the Lines fbF (or fBF).

CHAP. III.

Concerning the Chief Properties of every Parabola.

NOTE, in every Parabola, the intercepted Diameter, or that Part of its Axis, which is between the Vertex and that Ordinate which limits its Length, as Sa or SA, &c. is call'd an Abscissa. Sect. 1. The Plain or Figure of every Parabola is proportion'd by its Ordinates and Abscissa, as in the following Theorem:

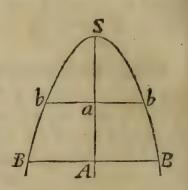
THEOREM ordinate:: so is any other Abscissa: to the Square of

Lits Semi-ordinate.

That is, if we suppose the annex'd Figure to be a Parabola, wherein Sa, and SA, are Abscissa, and bab, BAB, Ordinates rightly apply'd, it will

be $Sa: \Box ba:: SA: \Box BA$ where foever or $Sa: SA:: \Box ba: \Box BA$ the Points a, A, are taken,

And so for any other Abscissa, &c.



Demonstration.

Let the following Figure HVG represent a Right Cone cut into two Parts by the Right Line SA, parallel to its Side VH. Then the Plain of that Section, viz. Bb SbB, will be a Parabola, by Sact A. Page 364. wherein let us suppose SA to be its Axis, and that, BAB to be Ordinates rightly apply'd to that Axis. Again, imagine the Cone to be cut by the Right Line bg parallel to its Base HG. Then will bg be the Diameter of a Circle, by Sect. 2. Page 363. and \triangle Sag like to \triangle SAG.

been 2. I age 303. and Z oug me to Z on o.		
Therefore	1	Sa: ag::SA: AG V By Theorem 13.
ı	2	$Sa \times AG = SA \times ag$
2 × b a	3	SaxAGxha=SAxagxha By Axiom 3.
But	4	$\begin{cases} HA = ba, \text{ because } SA \\ \text{is parallel to } VH \end{cases}$
And	5	$\Box BA = AG \times HA$ By Lem. h. a b g b a = $ag \times ha$ P. 363
3, 4, 5,	6	$\begin{cases} Sa \times \square BA = SA \times \square ba \\ By Axiom 5. \end{cases}$
6, Analogy	7	Sa: \Box ba:: SA: \Box BA Vide Page 194. B
		O F D Thefe

These Proportions being prov'd to be the common Property of every Parabola, all that is farther requir'd about that Section, or Figure, may from thence easily be deduced.

Sect. 2. To find the Latus Redum or Right Parameter of any Parabola.

The Latus Rectum of a Parabola hath the same Ratio or Proportion to any Abscissa, and its Semi-Ordinate, as the Latus Rectum of any Ellipsis hath to its Transverse and Conjugate Diameters, and may be found by this Theorem.

THEOREM { As any Abscissa : is in Proportion to its Semi-ordinate : : so is that Semi-ordinate : to the Latus Rectum.

Let L = the Latus Rectum.

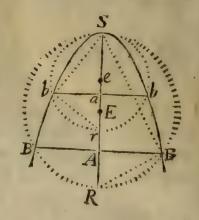
Or if the Ordinates are given, to find their Abscissæ; then it will be, L:ba::ba:Sa, and L:BA::BA:SA, &c.

Consequently
$$\frac{\Box b a}{L} = S a$$
, and $\frac{\Box B a}{L} = S A$, &c.

From the Consideration of these Proportions, it will be easy to conceive how to find the Latus Rectum Geometrically, thus:

Join the vertical Point S of the Axis, and either extream Point of any Ordinate as B (or b) with a Right Line, viz. SB (or Sb)

and bisect that Line (by Problem 2. Page 287.) marking the Point where the bisecting Line doth intersect or cross the Axis, as at E (or e) and with the Radius S E (or S e) upon the Point E (or e) describe a Circle; (as in the annex'd Figure) then will the Distance between the Ordinate and that Point where the Circle's Periphery cuts the Axis, viz. A R (or a r) be the true Latus Rectum required.



For SA:BA::BA:AR, and Sa:ba::ba:or, by Theor. 13. therefore AR = L. And ar = L, by the 1st and 2d Steps above.

Consectary.

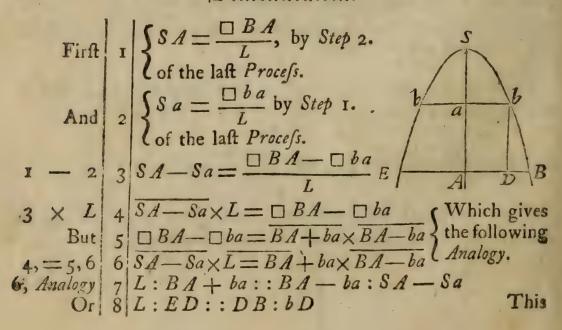
From these *Proportions* of finding the Latus Rectum, it will be easy to deduce and demonstrate the following Theorem:

THEOREM Sordinates: : so is the Difference of those two Semi-or-

I dinates : to the Difference of their Abscissa.

Suppose any Right Line drawn within the Parabola, as b D, parallel to its Axis S A; then will that Line (viz. b D) be a Diameter (by Def. 5, Page 365) which will make E D = AB + ab, DB = AB - ab, and bD = SA - Sa. Then it will be L: ED: DB: bD, according to the Theorem.

Demonstration.



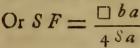
This peculiar Property of the Parabola was first publish'd, Anno 1684, by one Mr. Thomas Baker, Rector of Bishop Nympton in Devonshire, in a Treatise entitled, The Geometrical Key: Or, the Gate of Equations unlock'd; wherein he hath shew'd the Geometrical Construction and Solution of all Cubick and Biquadratick Adsected Equations by one general Method, which he calls a Central Rule, deduced from this peculiar Property of the Parabola.

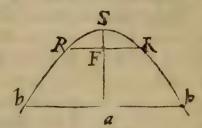
Sect. 3. To find the Focus of any Parabola.

The Focus of every Parabola is that Point in its Axis the rugh which the Latus Rectum doth pass. (See Definition 3. Sect. 4. Page 359.) Therefore its Distance from the Vertex of the Parabola may be easily found, either by the Latus Rectum itself, or by any other Ordinate, and its Abscissa.

Thus, suppose the Point at F to be the Focus, S the Vertex, the

Ordinate R F R = L the Latus Rectum, and b a b any other Ordinate. Then will $S F = \frac{1}{2} L$.





Demonstration.

First I $SF \times L = \Box FR$. by Sect. 2. Page 375. And 2 $FR = \frac{1}{2}L$; for the Ordinate RFR = L as above. 2 © 2 3 $\Box FR = \frac{1}{4}\Box L = \frac{1}{2}L \times \frac{1}{2}L$ 1, = 3 4 $SF \times L = \frac{1}{4}\Box L$ 4 ÷ L 5 $SF = \frac{1}{4}L$, as by Definition 4. Sect. 4. Page 359. Again 6 $\frac{\Box ba}{Sa} = L$, by the third Step in Page 375. Conseq. 7 $\frac{\Box ba}{4Sa} = \frac{1}{4}L$, &c. as above. Q. E. D.

Sect. 4. To describe, or draw a Parabola several Ways.

Note, There are two or three Ways of drawing a Parabola inftrumentally at one Motion; but because those Instruments or Machines are not only too perplex'd for a Learner to manage, but also a little subject to Error, I have therefore chosen to shew how that Figure may be (the best) drawn by a convenient Number of Points, viz. Ordinates sound, either Numerically or Geometrically, according to the DATA; which if the Work of the three last Sections be well consider'd, must needs be very easy.

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1. If any Ordinate and its Abscissa are given, there may by them be found as many Ordinates as you please to assign or take Points in the Parabola's Axis; (by Sect. 4. Page 380) and the Curve of the Parabola may be drawn by the extream Points of those Ordinates, as the Ellipsis was Page 373.

2. If the Latus Rectum, and either any Ordinate, or its Abscissa, are given, then any affign'd Number of Ordinates may by them be found (by Sect. 2. Page 381) either Numerically or Geometri-

cally, &c.

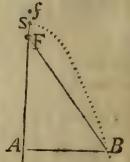
3. If only the Distance of the Focus from the Vertex of the Parabola be given, any affign'd Number of Ordinates may be found by it. For $SF = \frac{1}{4}L$ the Latus Rectum, and $\frac{1}{2}L = FR$ as in the last Section; and it will be, as SF: is to $\Box FR$:: so is any other Abscissa, viz. (Sa or SA, &c.): to the Square of its Semi-ordinate (viz. \Box b a, or \Box B A) according to the common Property of the Parabola.

Altho' any of these Ways of finding the Ordinates are easy enough, yet that Way which may be deduced from the following Proposition will be found much more easy and ready in

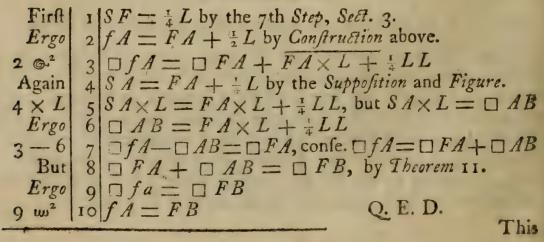
Practice.

PROPOSITION. The Sum of any Abscissa and focal Distance from the Vertex, will be equal to the Distance from the Focus to the extream Point of the Ordinate, which cuts off that Abscissa.

For Instance, suppose S to be the Vertex of any Parabola, the Point F to be its Focus, and AB any Semi-ordinate rightly apply'd to its Axis SA: Then, I say, where-ever the Point A is taken in the Axis, it will be SA + SF = FB. Consequently, if Sf = SF, it will be fA = FB.



Demonstration.



Chap. 3.

This Proposition being well understood, 'twill be very easily apply'd to Practice, supposing the Focal Distance given, or any other Data by which it may be found. Thus draw any Right Line to represent the Parabola's Axis, and from its vertical Point, as at S, set off the Focal Distance both upwards and downwards, viz. make Sf = SF, the Distance of the given Focus from the Vertex; as in the Scheme: Then by the Proposition 'tis evident, that, if never so many Lines be drawn Ordinately at Right Angles to the Axis, the true Distance between the Point f out of the Parabola, and any of those Lines (or Ordinates) being measur'd or set off from the Focus F to the same Line or Ordinate, 'twill assign the true Point in that Line through which the Curve must pass; that is, it will shew the true Limits or Length of that Ordinate; as at B in the last Scheme.

Proceeding on in the very same Manner from Ordinate to Ordinate, you may with great Expedition and Exactness find as many Ordinates (or rather their Points only, like B) as may be thought convenient, which, being all join'd together with an even Hand, will form the Parabola requir'd.

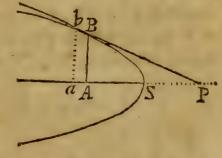
N. B. The more Ordinates (or their Points) there are found, and the nearer they are to one another, the easier and exacter may the Curve of the Parabola be drawn. The same is to be observed when any

other Curve is requir'd to be drawn by Points.

Sect. 5. To draw a Tangent to any given Point in the Curve of a Parabola.

Tangents are very easily drawn to the Curve of any Parabola;

For, supposing S to be its Vertex, B the Point of Contact (viz. the Point where the Tangent must touch the Curve) and P the Point where the Tangent will intersect (or meet with) the Parabola's Axis produced: Then if from the Point of Contact B there be drawn the Semi-ordinate B A at



Right Angles to the Axis SA, wherefoever the Point A falls in the Axis, 'twill be SP = SA.

Demonstration.

Draw the Semi-ordinate b a (as in the Figure) then will the BAP and $\triangle b$ a P be alike. Let y = AS the Abscissa, and z = D d d

SP; put x = Aa the Distance between the two Semiordinates, which we suppose to be infinitely near each other, as in the Ellipsis, Page 377.

CHAP. IV.

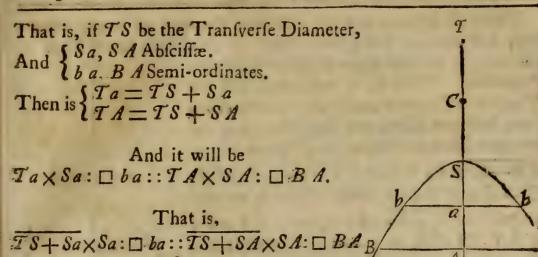
Concerning the chief Properties of the Hyperbola.

NOTE, any Part of the Axis of an Hyperbola, which is intercepted between its Vertex and any Ordinate (viz. any intercepted Diameter) is call'd an Abscissa; as in the Parabola.

Sect. 1. The Plain of every Hyperbola is proportion'd by this general Theorem.

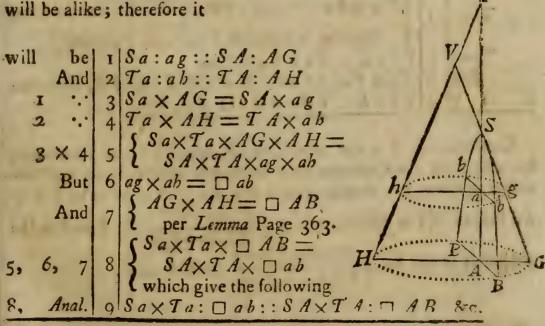
As the Sum of the Transverse and any Abscissa multiply'd into that Abscissa: is to the Square of its Semi-ordinate: to the Square of its Semi-ordinate.

That



Demonstration.

Let the following Figure HVG represent a Right Cone cut into two Parts by the Right Line SA; then will the Plain of that Section be an Hyperbola (by Sect. 5, Chap I.) in which let SA be its Axis, or intercepted Diameter, bab and BAB Ordinates rightly apply'd (as before in the Parabola) and TS its Transverse Diameter. Again, if the Cone is supposed to be cut by hg, parabel to its Base HG, it will also be the Diameter of a Circle, SC as in the Ellipsis and Parabola. Then will the ASg a and ASGA be alike; also the ATah and ATAH

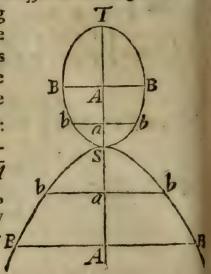


Q. E. D.

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These Proportions are the common Property of every Hyperbola, and do only differ from those of the Ellipsis in the Signs +

and —; as plainly appears in the following Proportions. That is, if we suppose TS the Transverse Diameter common to both Sections (viz. both the Ellipsis and Hyperbola) as in the annexed Scheme: then in the Ellipsis it will be $TS-Sa\times Sa: \Box ab:: TS-SA\times SA: \Box AB$ as by Sect. 1, Chap. 2. and in the Hyperbola it is $TS+Sa\times Sa: \Box ab:: TS+SA\times SA: \Box AB$, as above. Therefore all, that is farther required in the Hyperbola, may (in a manner) be found as in the Ellipsis, due possible Regard being had to changing of the Sine.



Sect. 2. To find the Latus Rectum, or Kight Parameter, of any Hyperbola.

From the last Proportion take either of the Antecedents and its Consequent, viz. either $Ta \times Sa : \Box ab$. Or $TA \times SA : \Box AB$, to them bring in the Transverse TS for a third Term, and by those three find a sourth Proportional (as in the Ellipsis) and that will be the Latus Restum.

Thus I
$$\begin{cases} Ta \times Sa : \Box ab : : TS : \frac{\Box ab \times TS}{Ta \times Sa} = \text{the Latus} \\ Rectum, \text{ which call } L \text{ (as in the Parabola.)} \end{cases}$$
Then 2
$$TS : L : : Ta \times Sa : \Box ab.$$
But 3
$$Ta \times Sa : \Box ab : : TA \times SA : \Box AB, \text{ therefore} \end{cases}$$
2, 3 4
$$TS : L : : TA \times SA : \Box AB, &c.$$

Consequently L is the true Latus Rectum, or right Parameter, by which all the Ordinates may be found, according to its Definition in Chap. 1. And because TS + Sa = Ta, let it be TS + Sa instead of Ta, then it will be $\frac{\Box ab \times TS}{TS \times Sa + \Box Sa} = L$ and in the Ellipsis it would be $\frac{\Box ab \times TS}{TS \times Sa - \Box Sa} = LR = L$.

Sect. 3. To find the Focus of any Hyperbola.

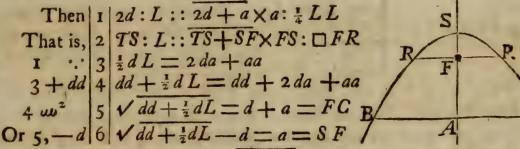
The Focus being that Point in the Hyperbola's Axis through which the Latus Rectum must pass (as in the Ellipsis and Parabola) it may be found by this Theorem.

THEOREM. To the Rectangle made of half the Transverse into half the Latus Rectum, add the Square of half the Transverse; the Square Root of that Sum will be the Distance of the Focus from the Center of the Hyperbola.

Demonstration.

Suppose the Point at F, in the annex'd Scheme, to be the Focus

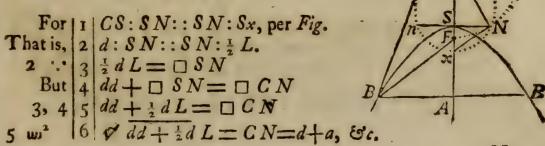
fought; then will $FR = \frac{1}{2}L$. Let TC = CS be half the Transverse; then is the Point C call'd the Center of the Hyperbola (for a Reason that shall be hereaster shew'd) Again; let CS = d, and SF = a



In the Ellipsis 'tis, $2d:L::\overline{2d-a}\times a:\frac{1}{4}LL$. that is, $\frac{1}{2}dL=2da-a$, &c.

The Geometrical Effection of the last Theorem is very easily perform'd, thus: make $S = \frac{1}{2}L$, viz. half the Latus Rectum; and let C S = d, as above. Upon $C \times$ (as a Diameter) describe a

Circle, and at S the Vertex of the Hyperbola draw the Right Line n S N at Right Angles to C x; then join the Points C N with a Right Line, and 'twill be C N = d + a = FC.



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Now here is not only found the Distance of the Hyperbola's Focus, either from its Center C, or Vertex S, but here is also found that Right Line usually call'd its Conjugate Diameter, viz. the Line $n \, S \, N$, which bears the same Proportion to the Transverse and Latus Restum of the Hyperbola, as the Conjugate Diameter of the Ellipsis doth to its Transverse and Latus Restum. For in the Ellipsis $T \, S : Nn : Nn : L \, R$, per Sest. 2, Page 363. Consequently $\frac{1}{2} \, T \, S : \frac{1}{2} \, Nn : \frac{1}{2} \, L \, R$. But $\frac{1}{2} \, T \, S = d$, $\frac{1}{2} \, Nn = S \, N$, and $\frac{1}{2} \, L \, R = \frac{1}{2} \, L$. Therefore $d : S \, N : : S \, N : \frac{1}{2} \, L$. As at the 2d Step above.

What Use the aforesaid Line n S N is of, in Relation to the

Hyperbola, will appear farther on.

Sect. 4. To describe an Hyperbola in Plano.

In order to the easy Describing of an Hyperbola in Plano, it will be convenient to premise the following Proposition, which differs from that of the Ellipsis in Sect. 3, Chap. 2, only in the Signs.

Proposition.

If from the Foci of an Hyperbola there be drawn two Right Lines, so as to meet each other in any Point of the Hyperbola's Curve, the Difference of those Lines (in the Ellipsis' tis their Sum) will be equal to the Transverse Diameter,

That is, if F be the Focus, and it be made Cf = CF (as in the last Scheme) then the Point f is said to be a Focus out of the Section (or rather of the opposite Section) and it will be fB - FB = TS.

Demonstration.

Suppose fC, or Cf = z, and SA = x, let CS, or TC = d, as before; then will fA = d + x + z, and FA = d + x - z. Again, let FB = b, and fB = b, then 2d = b - b, by the *Proposition*.

From these substituted Letters it follows,

That $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & dd + 2dx + 2dz + xx + 2zx + zz = \Box f A \\ And & 2 & dd + 2dx - 2dz + xx - 2zx + zz = \Box f A \\ But & \Box fA + \Box AB = \Box fB, and \Box fA + \Box AB = \Box FB \\ ef laft & 3 & dd + \frac{1}{2}dL = da + 2da + aa = \Box FC = zz. \end{vmatrix}$

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4 zz - dd = \frac{1}{2} dL
           6 2d:L::2d+x\times x:\square AB, by common Properties.
 Again
             2d: \frac{zz - dd}{\frac{1}{2}d}:: 2dx + xx: \Box AB
           8 \frac{2dzzx + zzxx - 2dddx - ddxx}{dd} = \Box AB
               (dd + 2dx + 2dz + xx + 2xx + zz +
               \frac{2dzzx + zzxx - 2d^3x - ddxx}{dd} = \Box fA + \Box AB = bb
               (dd+2dx-2dz+xx-2zx+z+
                \frac{2dzzx + zzxx - 2d^3x - ddxx}{dd} = \Box FA + \Box AB = bb
2 + 8 10
9 + d \left[ 1 \right] d^4 + 2d^3z + 2ddzx + ddzz + 2dzzx + zzxx = ddhb
          12 d^4 - 2d^3z - 2ddzx + ddzz + 2dzzx + zzxx = ddbb
          13 dd + dz + zx = dh
                                          Although the Aquation at the
          14 dd - dz - zx = db
12 w2
                                           16th Step be in itself impossi-
                                           ble, because z is greater than
\mathbf{r}_3 \div d | \mathbf{r}_5| d + z + \frac{zx}{d} = b
                                           d (by the 4th Step) yet from
                                            thence it will be easy to con-
14 \div d \mid 16 \mid d - z - \frac{zx}{d} = b
                                           clude, that the Difference be-
                                          tween d and z + \frac{zx}{d} will give
16, or |z| + \frac{zx}{d} - d = b
                                           the true Value of b, as in the
15-17 | 18 | 2d = b - b
                                          17th Step.
```

But because I would leave no Room for the Learner to doubt about changing the \mathcal{E} quation, $d-z-\frac{zx}{d}=b$ into that of $z+\frac{zx}{d}-d=b$, it may be convenient to illustrate the whole Process in Numbers, whereby (I presume) 'twill plainly appear that $b-b\equiv TS$.

In order to that, let the Transverse TS = 2d = 12, then d = 6 suppose the Abscissa SA = 2 = 4, and the Semi-ordinate AB = 3.

First 1
$$\overline{TS + SA} \times SA : \Box AB :: TS : L$$
, per Sect. 2.
1, viz. 2 $12 + 4 \times 4 = 64 : 9 :: 12 : 1,6875 = L$
Again 3 $\sqrt{dd + \frac{1}{2}dL} = d + a = CF$, per Sect. 3.
3, viz. 4 $\sqrt{36 + 5,0625} = 6,408 = CF = z$
Then 5 $d + x + z = 6 + 4 + 6,408 - 16,408 = fA$
And 6 $d + x - z = 6 + 4 - 6,408 = 3,592 = FA$
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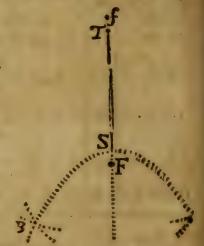
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G.2
           269,2224 = \Box f A
   @,2
            12,9024 = \Box FA
             9 = \Box AB, for AB = 3 by Supposition.
   But
        9
           278,2224 = \Box fA + \Box AB = \Box fB
        10
  + 9
            21,9024 = \Box FA + \Box AB = \Box FB
        11
IO w²
            16,68 = fB
        12
             4,68 = FB
        13
            12,00 = fB = FB - TS. Which was to be prov'd.
12-13 14
```

If this Proposition be truly understood, it must needs be easy to conceive how to describe the Curve of any Hyperbola very readily by Points when the Transverse Diameter and the Focus are given (or any other Data by which they may be found, as in the precedent Rules) thus:

Draw any straight Line at Pleasure, and on it set off the Length

of the given Transverse TS, and from its extreme Points or Limits, viz. TS, set off Tf = SF, the Distance of the given Focus (viz. the Point f without, and F within the Section, as before): that done, upon the Point f (as a Center) with any assum'd Radius greater than TS, describe an Arch of a Circle; then from that Radius take the Transverse TS, making their Difference a second Radius, with which, upon the Point F within the Section, describe another Arch to cut or cross the first Arch,



as at B; then will that Point B be in the Curve of the Hyperbola, by the last Proposition. And therefore 'tis plain, that, proceeding on in this Manner, you may find as many Points (like B) as may be thought convenient (the more there are, and nearer they are together, the better) which being all join'd together with an even Hand (as in the Parabola) will form the Hyperbola requir'd.

There are several other Ways of delineating an Hyperbola in Plano: One Way is, by finding a competent Number of Ordinates, as by Section 1, &c. but I think none so easy and expeditious as this mechanical Way: I shall therefore, for Brevity's Sake, pass over the rest, and leave them to the Learner's Practice, as being easily deduced from what hath been already said.

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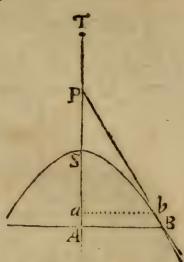
Sect. 5. To draw a Nangent to any given Point in the Curve of an Hyperbola.

The drawing of a Tangent, that will touch any given Point in the Curve of an Hyperbola, may be easily perform'd by Help of a Theorem; as in the Ellipsis, Sect. 6, Chap. 2.

Let $\begin{cases} D = TS \text{ the Transverse Diameter.} \\ L = \text{the Latus Rectum.} \\ y = SA \text{ the Abscissa.} \end{cases}$

And z = AP the Distance between the Ordinate and that Point in the Transverse cut by the Tangent.

Then, if y be given, z may be found by this Theorem, $\left\{ \frac{Dy + yy}{\frac{1}{2}D + y} = z \right\}$ [which differs from that in the Ellipsis only in Signs. Vide Page 371.]



Or, if z be given, then y may be found by this Theorem:

THEOREM.
$$\sqrt{\frac{DD+zz}{4}}: + \frac{1}{2}z - \frac{1}{2}D = y$$
.

Demonstration.

Draw the Semi-ordinate ba, as in the Figure, and put x = Aa an infinite small Space between the two Semi-ordinates; as before in the Ellipsis, &c.

Then I D: L::
$$Dy + yy$$
: $\square AB$

That is,

I S: L:: $TS + SA \times SA$: $\square AB$

Again 4

That is,

 $TS: L:: TS + SA \times SA$: $\square AB$

Dy $L + yy L = \square AB$

Again 4

That is,

 $TS: L:: TS + SA \times SA$: $\square AB$
 $TS: L:: TS + SA \times SA$: $\square AB$

Per Figure 7

 $TS: L:: TS + SA \times SA$: $\square AB$

Per Figure 7

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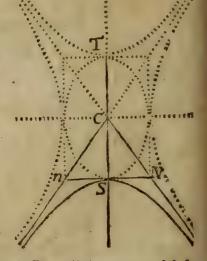
6, II | 12 |
$$\begin{cases} \frac{Dy L + yy L - 2y L - DL}{D} \\ \frac{Dy Lzz + yy Lzz - 2Dy Lz - 2yy Lz}{Dzz} \\ \frac{Dz}{Dz} \\ \frac{Dz}{2} \\ \frac{Dz$$

The Geometrical Effection of the first of these Theorems is very easy; sor, by the 14th Step, 'tis evident that there are three Lines given to find a sourth proportional Line. By Problem 3, Page 308.]

Scholium.

From the Comparisons, which have been all-along made in this Chapter, between the Hyperbola and the Ellipsis, 'twill be easy

(even for a Learner) to perceive the Coherence that is in (or between) those two Figures; but, for the better understanding of what is meant by the Center and Asymptotes of an Hyperbola, consider the annex'd Scheme, wherein it is evident (even by Inspection) that the opposite Hyperbola's will always be alike, because they will always have the same Transverse Diameter common to both, &c. (see Seel. 1, of this Chap.) Also, that the middle Point, or common Center of the Ellipsis, is the common Center to all the four conjugal Hyperbola's.



And the two Diagonals of the Right-angled Parallelogram, which circumfcribes the Ellipsis (or is inscrib'd to the four Hyperbola's) being continued, will be such Asymptotes to those Hyperbola's as are defined Chap. 1, Sect. 5, Defin. 4.

Sect.

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Sect. 6. To draw the Asymptotes of any Hyperbola, &c.

Having found the Latus Rectum (by Sect. 2.) and the Conjugate Diameter in n S N in its true Position, by Sect. 3. Then through the Center C of the Hyperbola, and the extream Points n N of its Conjugate Diameter, draw two Right Lines, as C N and C n, infinitely continued (as in the following Figure) and they will be the Asymptotes required. That is, they are two such Right Lines as, being infinitely extended, will continually incline to the Sides of the Hyperbola, but never touch them.

Demonstration.

Suppose the Semi-ordinates a b and AB to be rightly apply'd to the Axis TA; and produced both Ways to the Asymptotes, as at fg and FG; then will the $\triangle CSN$, $\triangle Cag$, and $\triangle CAG$ be alike. Let d = CS = TC. And L = the Latus Rectum; as before,

Put
$$\begin{cases} e = Sa \\ y = SA \end{cases}$$
 the Abscissa. Then $\begin{cases} d + e = Ca. \\ d + y = CA. \end{cases}$
Then I $d:SN::d+e:ag.$ viz. $CS:SN::Ca:ag.$
I in \square 's $2 dd: \square SN::dd+2de+ee:\square ag.$
But $3 d=\square SN.$ per Sect. 3 .

2, $3:$
4

Again $5 2d:L::2de+eeL=\square ab.$
5

 $6 2deL+eeL=\square ab.$
But $6 3dL=\square ag-\square ab.$
But $6 3dL=\square ag-\square$

Eee 2

13 — 15 | 16 |
$$\frac{dL}{2} = \Box AG - \Box AB$$

Also $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} 17 \\ 18 \\ AG - AB = BG \end{array} \right\}$ per Fig.
17 × 18 19 $\Box AG - \Box AB = BF \times BG$
16 19 20 $BF \times BG = \frac{1}{2}dL$
11,&20: 21 $bg = \frac{\frac{1}{2}dL}{bf}$. And $BG = \frac{\frac{1}{2}dL}{BF}$

From the last Step'tis evident, that the Asymptotes are nearer the Hyperbola at G than at g, and consequently will continually approach to its Curve: For BF) $\frac{1}{2}$ dL ($\equiv BG$ is less than bf) $\frac{1}{2}$ dL ($\equiv bg$, because the Divisor BF is greater than the Divisor bf; and it must needs be so where-ever the Ordinates are produc'd to the Asymptotes, from the Nature of the Triangles.

Again; From the 7th and 16th Steps 'tis evident, that the Asymptotes can never really meet and be co-incident with the Curve of the Hyperbola, although both were infinitely extended, because $\frac{1}{2}$ or dinate and the Square of that Semi-ordinate, when 'tis produc'd to

the Asymptote.

Consectary.

From hence it follows, that every Right Line which passes thro' the Genter and falls within the Asymptotes, will cut the Hyperbola; and all such Lines are call'd Diameters (as in the Ellipsis) because the Properties of the Hyperbola and Ellipsis are the same.

Note. Every Diameter, both in the Ellipsis, Parabola, and Hyperbola, hath its particular Latus Rectum and Ordinates; which (should they be distinctly handled, and the Effection of all such Lines as relate to them, as also the Nature and Properties of such Figures as may be inscribed and circumscribed to all the Sections, with the various Habitudes or Proportions of one Hyperbola to another, &c.) would afford Matter sufficient to fill a large Volume. But thus much may suffice by way of Introduction; I shall therefore desist pursuing them any farther, being sully satisfied, that, if what I have already done be well understood, the rest must needs be very easy to any one that intends to proceed farther on that ub-ject.

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AN

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

Mathematicks.

PART V.

HE Method of finding out any particular Quantity (viz. either any LINE, SUPERFICIES, or SOLID) by a regular Progression, or Series of Quantities continually approaching to it, which, being infinitely continued, would then become perfectly equal to it; is what is commonly call'd Arithmetick of Infinites; which I shall briefly deliver in the following Lemma's, and apply them to Practice in finding the superficial and solid Contents of Geometrical Figures farther on.

LEMMAI.

If any Series of equal Numbers (representing Lines or other Quantities) as, 1. 1. 1. 1. &c. or 2 2. 2. 2. &c. or 3. 3. 3. 3. &c. if one of the Terms be multiply'd into the Number of Terms, the Product will be the Sum of all the Terms in the Series.

This is so very plain, and easy to be understood, that it needs no Example.

LEMMA II.

If the Series of Numbers in Arithmetick Progression begin with a Cypher, and the common Difference be 1; as, 0. 1. 2. 3. 4. &c. (representing a Series of Lines or Roots beginning with a Point) if the last Term be multiply'd into the Number of Terms, the Product will be double the Sum of all the Series.

That is, putting L = the last Term, N = the Number of Terms, and S = the Sum of all the Series:

Then

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Then will NL = 2S. Confequently, $\frac{1}{2}NL = S$. viz. one Half of so many times the greatest Term as there are Numbers of Terms in the Series.

 $\frac{0+1+2+3+4}{4+4+4+4+4} = \frac{10}{20} = \text{the Sum of the Series} = \frac{1}{2} NL.$

And this will always be so, how many Terms soever there are, by Consect. 1, Page 185.

LEMMA III.

If a Series of Squares whose Sides or Roots are in Arithmetick Progression, beginning with a Cypher, &c. (as in the last Lemma) be infinitely continued; the last Term, being multiply'd into the Numbers of Terms, will be Triple to the Sum of all the Series, viz. $NLL \equiv 3S$, or $\frac{1}{3}NLL \equiv S$.

That is, the Sum of such a Series will be one Third of the last or greatest Term, so many times repeated as is the Number of Terms in the Series.

Instances in the Square Numbers.

1.
$$\left\{ \frac{0+1+4}{4+4+4} = \frac{5}{12} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{12} \right\}$$

$$2 \cdot \left\{ \frac{0 + 1 + 4 + 9}{9 + 9 + 9 + 9} - \frac{14}{30} - \frac{7}{18} - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{18} \right\}$$

3.
$$\left\{ \frac{0+1+4+9+16}{16+16+16+16} = \frac{30}{80} = \frac{3}{8} = \frac{9}{24} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{24} \text{ Sc.} \right\}$$

From these Instances 'tis evident, that as the Number of Terms in the Series does increase, the Fraction or Excess above does decrease, the said Excess always being $\frac{1}{6N-6}$; which, if we suppose the Series to be infinitely continued, will then become infinitely small, viz. in Effect nothing at all. Consequently, NLL may be taken for the true or perfect Sum of fuch an infinite Series of Squares.

LEMMA IV.

If a Series of Cubes, whose Roots are in Arithmetick Progression. beginning with a Cypher, &c. (as above) be infinitely continu'd, the Sum of all the Series will be ' NLLL=S.

That is, one Fourth of the last or greatest Term so many times repeated as is the Number of Terms.

Instances

Instances in Cube Numbers.

If o . 1 . 2 . 3. &c. be the Roots of the Cubes.

Then I.
$$\left\{ \frac{0+1+8+27}{27+27+27+27} = \frac{36}{108} = \frac{4}{12} = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{12} \right\}$$

From these Examples it plainly appears, that, as the Number of Terms in the Series increases, the Fraction or Excess above $\frac{1}{4}$ decreases, the Excess being always $\frac{1}{4N-4}$; which, if we suppose the Series to be infinitely continued, will become infinitely small, or rather nothing; as in the last Lemma. Consequently, $\frac{1}{4}NL$ LL may be taken for the true and perfect Sum of all the Terms in such an infinite Series of Cubes.

LEMMA V.

If a Series of Biquadrates, whose Roots are in Arithmetick Progression, beginning with a Cypher, &c. (as before) be infinitely continued, the Sum of all the Terms in such a Series will be 1 NL4.

The Truth of this may be manifested by the like Process, as in the foregoing Lemma's, and so on for higher Powers. But if any one desires a farther Demonstration of these Series, he may (I pre-fume) meet with ample Satisfaction in Dr. Wallis's History of Algebra, Chap. 78 and 79, wherein the Doctor concludes with these Words:

- Thus having shew'd, that in the Progression of Laterals (or
- "Arithmetical Proportionals) beginning at 0, the Sum of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 Terms, is always equal to half of fo many times the great-
- " est; and there being no Pretence of Reason why we should
- then doubt it in a Progression of 7, 8, 9, 10, &c. we conclude
- " it so to be, tho' such Number of Terms be suppos'd infinite.
 " Again; in a Progression of their Squares having shew'd, that
- " in 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 Terms the Aggregate is always more than one
- "Third of so many times the greatest, and the Excess always such

" infinitely."

aliquot Part of the greatest, as is denominated by six times the " Number of Terms wanting 1. (As, if the Terms be 2, " it is $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6}$; if three, it is $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{12}$; if 4, it is $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{16}$; if 5, it is $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2+}$ of fo many times the greatest Term, and so onward) we may well conclude (there being no Pretence of Reason why to doubt it in the rest) that it will be so, how many soever 66 be fuch Number of Terms. And because such Excess, as the "Number of Terms do increase, will become infinitely small (or " less than any assignable) we conclude (from the Method of Exhaustions) that, if the Number of Terms be suppos'd infinite, 66 fuch Excess must be supposed to vanish, and the Aggregate of fuch infinite Progression suppos'd equal to \(\frac{1}{3}\) of so many times " the greatest. "In like manner having prov'd that fuch Progression of Cubes doth (as the Number of Terms increase) approach infinitely near to $\frac{1}{3}$ of fo many times the greatest, and of Biquadrates to $\frac{1}{3}$, and of Surfolids to for formany times the greatest, and so onwards as we please to try; and there being no Pretence of Rea-66 fon why to doubt it as to the rest, we may take it as a sufficient 46 Discovery, that (universally) the Aggregate of such infinite Progression is equal (or doth approach infinitely near) to such " a Part of fo many times the greatest, as is denominated by the Exponent (or Number of Dimensions) of such Power (as is that according to which the Progression is made) increas'd by 1, namely, of Laterals ; of Squares ; of Cubes ; of Biquadrates ; of fo many times the greatest) and so onwards

This Discourse of the Doctor's I thought convenient to insert, supposing it may give some Satisfaction to the Learner, to hear so Great a Man as Dr. Wallis's Argument about the Truth of these Series, which I have briefly deliver'd in the 'foregoing Lemma's.

LEMMA VI.

If any two Series or Ranks of Proportionals have the same Number of Terms (whether Finite or Infinite) it will always

As the first Term of one Series: is to the first Term of the other Series:: so is the Sum of all the Terms in the one Series: to the Sum of all the Terms in the other Series.

(12. e. 5)

As in these Numbers,	3	6 C	r these Numbers, 4	5
2014	2	6	12	15
	3	9	36	45
	4	12	108	
	5	15	324	405
	6	18	97.2	1215

That is, 1:3::21:63 And 4:5::1456:1820 &c.
The Application of these Lemma's to Geometrical Quantities,
viz. to Lines, Superficies, and Solids, wholly depends upon granting the following Hypotheses.

The Hypotheses.

1. That every Line is suppos'd to consist (or be compos'd) of an infinite Series of equidistant Points.

2. A Surface (viz. the Area of any Figure) to confift of an infinite Series of Lines, either streight or crooked, according as the Figure requires.

3. A Solid to confift of an infinite Series of Plains, or Superfi-

cies, according as its Figure requires.

Not that we suppose Lines, which have really no Breadth, can fill a Space or Superficies; or that Plains, which have not any Thickness, can constitute a Solid: But by what we here call Lines are to be understood small Parallelograms (or other Superficies) infinitely parrow, yet so as that their Breadths, being all taken and put together, must be equal to the Figure they are suppos'd to And those Plains or Superficies, which are here said to constitute a Solid, are to be understood infinitely thin; yet so as that their Depths or Thicknesses (which are hereafter also called Lines) being all taken together, must be equal to the Height of the propos'd Solid. Now, in order to render this Hypothesis as easy for a Learner to understand as I can, I shall here propose a very plain and familiar Example; Viz. Let us suppose any Book to be compos'd (or made up) of 100, 200, 300 (more or less) Leaves of fine Paper; such a Book, being close put together, will have Length, Breadth, and Depth or Thickness, and therefore may (not improperly) be called a Solid; and each of its Edges (being evenly cut) will be a Superficies compos'd of a Series of small Parallelograms, every one of their Breadths being only the Edge of a fingle Leaf of Paper; and if we conceive the Thickness of every one of those Leaves to be divided into 10, or 1000 - 100, or 1000, &c. they will then become such a Series of infinitely small Lines as are (by the Hypothesis) said to compose or fill up a Superficies. And all the Superficies of those infinitely thin or divided Leaves of Paper will become such a Series of Plains, or Superficies, as are said to constitute a Solid, viz. such a Solid as the Bigness and Figure of that Book.

Now according to this Idea of Lines, Superficies, and Solids, one may, without the least Prejudice to any Demonstration, admit

of the following Definitions and Theorems.

Definitions.

- I. The Area's of Squares, and all other Parallelograms, are compos'd or fill'd up with an infinite Series of equal Right Lines.
- II. The Area of every plain Triangle is compos'd of an infinite Series of Right Lines parallel to its Base, and equally decreasing until they terminate in a Point at the vertical Angle.
- III. The Area of a Circle may be composed either of an infinite Series of concentrick or parallel Circles, or of an infinite Series of Chord Lines parallel to its Diameter, or of an innumerable Multitude of Sectors.
- IV. The Area of an Ellipsis may be compos'd either of an infinite Series of Ordinates rightly apply'd, or of an infinite Series of Right Lines parallel to its Transverse Diameter.
- V. The Area's of the Parabola and Hyperbola are compos'd of an infinite Series of Ordinates; or may also be compos'd of Right Lines parallel to its Axis, &c.
- VI. A Prism is a solid Body contain'd or included within several equal Parallelograms, having its Bases or Ends equal and alike; and it is generally nam'd according to the Figure of its Base: That is,
- VII. A Cube (or Solid like a Dye) is a Prism bounded or included with fix equal square Plains.
- VIII. A Parallelopipedon is a Prism that hath its Sides bounded or included within four equal Parallelograms and two square Bases or Ends.
- IX. A Cylinder (or Solid, like a Rolling-stone in a Garden) is only a round Prism, having its Bases or Ends a persect Circle.

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X. The Solidity of every Prism is compos'd of an infinite Series of equal Plains, parallel and alike to that of its Base.

XI. A Pyramid is a Solid bounded or included within feveral plain Triangles fet upon any Polygonous Base, having their vertical Angles all meeting together in a Point, called the Vertex, and takes its Name from the Figure of its Base, viz. if it has a square Base, "tis call'd a square Pyramid; if a triangular Base, 'tis call'd a triangular Pyramid, &c.

XII. A Cone is only a round Pyramid, which hath been already defined in Page 355, &c.

XIII. The Solidity of every Pyramid is compos'd or constituted of an infinite Series of Plains, parallel and alike to that of its Base, equally decreasing until they terminate in a Point at the Vertex.

XIV. A Sphere or Globe, (viz. a Ball) is a Solid bounded or included within one regular Superficies, being form'd or generated by the Rotation of a Semi-circle about its Diameter (call'd the Axis of a Sphere) and its Solidity is compos'd or constituted of an infinite Series of concentrick Circles, whose Diameters are the Chords of that Circle by which it was form'd.

XV. A Spheroid (or Egg-like Figure) is a Solid bounded with one regular Superficies, form'd by the Rotation of a Semi-ellipsis about its Transverse Diameter (call'd the Axis of the Spheroid) and its Solidity is constituted of an infinite Series of concentrick Circles, whose Diameters are the Ordinates of that Ellipsis by which it was form'd.

XVI. There is another Sort of Solid call'd an Oblate Spheroid, being formed by the Rotation of an Ellipsis about its Conjugate Diameter, and it is like a flat Turnep.

XVII. If a Semi-parabola be turn'd about its Axis, 'twill form a Solid call'd a *Parabolick Conoid*, being compos'd or constituted of an infinite Series of Circles, whose Diameters are the Ordinates of a Parabola.

XVIII. If a Parabola be turn'd about its Base, or greatest Ordinate, 'twill form a Solid call'd a Pyramidoid, but most commonly a Parabolick Spindle, which will be constituted of an infinite Series of Circles, whose Diameters are Right Lines parallel to the Parabola's Axis.

XIX. If an Hyperbola be turn'd about its Axis, 'twill form a Solid call'd an Hyperbolick Conoid, being constituted of an infinite Series of Circles, whose Diameters are the Ordinates of the Hyperbola.

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XX. The curve Superficies of all circular Solids (viz. Cylinders, Cones, Spheres, &c.) are compos'd of an infinite Series of the Peripheries of those Circles which constitute their Solidities.

Upon these Definitions are grounded all the following Theorems; and therefore, if they were diligently compar'd with their respective Figures, it must needs be of great Help to the Learner, and would render all that follows very easy; wherein I shall begin with what hath been already demonstrated, by way of introducing the rest.

THEOREM I.

The Area of every Right-angled Parallelogram is obtain'd by multiplying the Length into its Breadth.

That is, $BD \times FB =$ the Area of the Parallelogram BDFG, by Lemma 1, compar'd with De-

finition 1.

Example.

Suppose BD = 26, and FB = 9, then $26 \times 9 = 234$ the Area. See Prob. 1, Page 339.



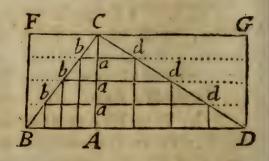
THEOREM II.

The Area of every plain Triangle is equal to half the Area of its circumscribing Parallelogram. That is, $\frac{BD \times CA}{2}$ = the Area of $\triangle BCD$, in the following Figure.

Demonstration.

Suppose the Perpendicular C A to be divided into an infinite

Number of equal Parts, as at the Points a, a, a, &c. and through those Points there were drawn Right Lines parallel to the Base BD; (viz. bad, bad, bad, &c.) then will those Lines be a Series of Terms in Arithmetick Progression beginning at the Point C (viz.



o, bd, 2bd, 3bd, &c. as is evident by the Figure, wherein BD the greatest Term = L, and CA the Number of Terms = N.

But

But $\frac{1}{2}$ NL = S, by Lemma 2. And S = the Triangle's Area by Definition 2. Q. E. D.

Example. Let BD = 26, and CA = 9, as above; then $\frac{26\times9}{}$ = 117, or $\frac{62}{2}\times9$ = 117. Or thus, $26\times\frac{9}{2}$ = 117, the Area requir'd. [See Problem 3, Page 330.]

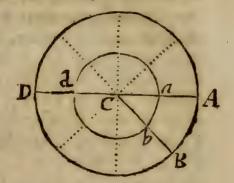
THEOREM III.

The Peripheries of Circles are in Proportion one to another as their Diameters are.

Demonstration.

Let the Periphery of a Circle be divided into any Number of

equal Arches by Right Lines drawn from the Center (viz. Radii) suppose 'em 8, as in the annexed Figure, wherein AB is one of them; then, if thro' any Point in the Radius there be drawn a concentrick or parallel Circle, its Periphery will also be divided into 8 equal Arches by those Radii, one whereof will be ab, and the $\triangle Cab$ will be like to $\triangle CAB$,



Therefore Ca:ab::CA:AB, or Ca:CA::ab:AB, consequently 2 Ca : 2 CA : : 8 ab : 8 AB. But 2 Ca = dathe Diameter of the Circle, whose Periphery is 8 ab; and 2 C A = DA, the Diameter of the Circle, whose Periphery is 8 AB. Therefore, &c. as by the Theorem, Q. E. D.

Example.

In Chapter 6, Part III, it was found, that, if the Diameter of a Circle be 2, its Periphery will be 6,2831853, &c. Therefore, 2: 6,2831853, &c. :: 1: 3,14159265, &c. the Periphery of the Circle whose Diameter is 1.

Corollary.

Hence it follows, that because Unity, or 1, may be made the first Term in the Proportion, therefore 3,14159265, &c. may be made a constant or settled Factor; which, being multiply'd into any propos'd Diameter, will produce the Periphery of that Circle.

Note, Instead of 3,14159265, &c. it may be sufficient to take

only 3,1416.

Or, in whole Numbers, the Proportion may be,

As 7: 22: Diam.: Periphery } { these Numbers may serve, and are often used in common Practice.

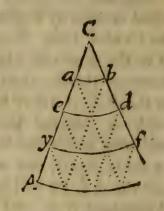
THEOREM IV.

The Area of any Sector of a Circle is equal to half the Restangle of the Radius into its Arch. That is, $\frac{CA \times AB}{z}$ = the Area of ACP.

Demonstration.

Suppose the Radius C A to be divided into an infinite Series of

equidiftant Points, as a, e, y, &c. and thro' those Points there were drawn concentrick or parallel Arches, as ab, ed, yf, &c. then they will be a Series of Arches in Arithmetick Progression, beginning at the Point G (viz. 0, 1, 2, 3, &c.) as plainly appears by the Figure, wherein the greatest Term is AB = L, and Number of Terms is CA = N. But $\frac{1}{2}NL = S$, the Sum of all the Series, by Lemma 2, and S = the Sector's Area, by Definition 3. Q. E. D.



Let the Radius CA = 12, and the Arch AB = 8, then $\frac{12 \times 8}{2}$ = 48. Or $\frac{12}{5} \times 8 = 48$. Or $\frac{8}{5} \times 12 = 48$, the Area of the Sector ACB.

THEOREM V.

The Area of every Circle is equal to half the Rectangle of the Radius into its Periphery. That is, according to Archimedes, a Circle is equal to a Right-angled Triangle, whose Sides containing the Right-angle are equal, one to the Radius, and the other to the Perimeter of that Circle. Pro. 1. de Dimensione Circuli.

The Truth of this Theorem may be easily deduced from the last, thus: If we suppose the last Sector to be one Eighth-part of a Circle, then it follows, that $\frac{8AB \times CA}{2} = 4AB \times CA$ will be the Area of the whole Circle. But 4AB = half the Circle's Peniphery, and CA = half its Diameter; therefore, Sc. as per Theorem.

Q. E. D.

Example.

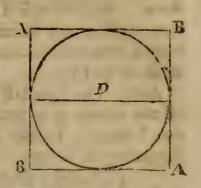
Example.

If the Diameter be Unity, or 1, the Periphery will be 3,14159265 &c. by Theorem 3. Then $\frac{3,14159265}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = 0,78539816$, &c. (or 0,7854 for common Use) will be the Area of that Circle. Scholium.

From hence naturally flows the following Proportion between the Square and its inscrib'd Circle.

As the Perimeter (viz. the Sum of the four Sides) PROPORTION. of any Square: is to its Area:: so is the Periphery of the inscrib'd Circle: to its Area.

That is, supposing AB = D = the Side of the Square, and the Diameter of its inscrib'd Circle; then 4 $D \equiv$ the Perimeter, $DD \equiv$ the Area of the Square, and 3,1416 D = the Periphery of the Circle, by Theorem 3. But 4 D: DD:: 3,1416 D:0,7854 DD = the Circle's Area. And if D = 1, then 4D=4, and $DD=1\times 1=1$, and the Periphery will be 3,1416. Then 4: 1:: 1:0,7854 &c. as in the Example above. And from hence may be eafily deduced the following Theorems.



THEOREM VI.

The Area's of all Circles are in Proportion one to another as the Squares of their Diameters. (2. e. 12.)

For if D = the Diameter of one Circle, and d = the Diameter of another Circle, then will 0,7854 DD be the Area of one Circle, and 0,7854 d d will be the Area of the other Circle; as above. But 0,7854 DD:0,7854 dd:: DD:dd. Or thus, let D = the Diameter, and P = the Periphery of one Circle; d = the Diameter, and $p \equiv$ the Periphery of another Circle;

Then $|I|^{\frac{1}{2}}D\times^{\frac{1}{2}}P=\frac{1}{2}DP=A$, the Area of one Circle. And $2 | \frac{1}{2} d \times \frac{1}{2} p = dp = a$, the Area of the other Circle.

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc}
1 \times 4 & 3 & DP = 4A \\
2 \times 4 & 4 & dp = 4A \\
3 \div D & 5 & P = \frac{4A}{D}
\end{array}$$

(per last Theorem.

4
$$\div$$
 d 6 $p = \frac{4a}{d}$

But 7 $P:p::D:d$, per Theorem 3.

5, 6, 7 8 $D:d::\frac{4A}{D}:\frac{4a}{d}$

8 \therefore 9 4 $DDa = 4ddA$, that is, $DDa = ddA$

9, Analogy 10 $DD:A::dd:a$, or $A:a::DD:dd$

Q. E. D.

Corollary.

Hence it follows, that because the Square of I is I (viz. $1 \times 1 = 1$) and 0,78539816, &c. or 0,7854 is the Area of the Circle whose Diameter is I (as before) therefore it will be 3: 0,7854:: so is the Square of any Circle's Diameter: to its Area. And because I is the first Term in the Proportion, therefore 0,7854 may be made a constant Factor; which, being multiply'd into the Square of any propos'd Diameter, will produce the Area of that Circle.

Note, The four last Theorems do plainly shew the Reason of all the common or practical Problems about a Circle, which, for the Learner's farther Satisfaction, I have here inserted together.

Supposing as before,

That
$$\begin{cases}
D = \text{the Diameter} \\
P = \text{the Periphery} \\
A = \text{the Area}
\end{cases}$$
 of any proposed Circle.

Then I Examp	1 2	Probl. 1. D being given, to find P. 1: 3,1416:: D: P. per Theorem 3. 3,1416 D = P. Suppose D=32. Then 3,1416×32=100,5312 the Periphery.
3 ·· Examp. Then	·	Probl. 2. D being given, to find A. 1: 0,7854:: DD: A, per Theorem 6. 0,7854 DD = A Suppose D = 32 (as before) DD = $32 \times 32 = 1024$ 0,7854 × 1024 = 804,2496, the Area requir'd.
And 2 ÷	5	Probl. 3. P being given, to find D. $D = \frac{P}{3.1416} \text{ Or } \begin{cases} \text{because } \frac{7}{3.1416} = 0.3183 \\ \text{therefore } 0.3183 P = D. \end{cases}$ This, being only Converse to the first, needs no Exam.

(1

Prob. 4. P being given to find A.

9,86965
$$DD = PP$$

6 ÷ 7 $DD = \frac{PP}{9,86965}$, or 0,10132 $PP = DD$

4 ÷ 8 $DD = \frac{A}{0,7854}$, or 1,2732 $A = DD$

For $\frac{1}{0,7854} = 1,2732$

7, 8 9 $\frac{PP}{9,86965} = \frac{A}{0,7854}$, or 0,10132 $PP = 1,2732$ A

9 × &c. 10 $\frac{PP}{12,5664} = A$, or 0,07957 $PP = A$

Prob. 5. A being given, to find D.

11 $D = \sqrt{\frac{A}{3,7854}}$, or $D = \sqrt{1,2732}$ A

Prob. 6. A being given, to find P.

10 × &c. 12 $PP = 12,5664$ A, or $PP = \frac{A}{0,07957}$

13 $P = \sqrt{12,5664}$ A, or $P = \sqrt{\frac{A}{0,07957}}$

These fix Problems contain all the Variety that can be proposed about finding the Periphery, Diameter, and Area of any Circle.

But if it be required to find the Area of any Segment, or Part of a Circle cut off by a Chord, that Work will require a farther Confideration.

First, As to the Data there must always be given the Diameter; or, either the Periphery or Area of the Circle, in order to find the Diameter.

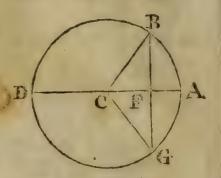
Secondly, There must also be given, either the Chord which is the Base of the Segment, or the versed Sine, which is the Height of the Segment. That is, either BG, or AF, in the following Scheme, must be given, that so the Area of the \(BCG \) may be found. Then it's evident (by the Figure) that, if the Area of the \(BCG \) be taken from the Area of the Sector CBAG, the Remainder will be the Area of the Segment BAG. And if the Area of the Segment BAG be taken from the whole Area of the Circle, the Remainder will be the Area of the other Segment DBG.

Exam-

Example in Numbers.

Let there be given DA = 32. as in Prob. 1. and the versed Sine AF = 6; then $\frac{1}{2}DA = BC = A = 16$, and CA - AF = CF = 10. But $\Box BC - \Box CF = \Box BF$. Consequently $A = BC - \Box CF = BF$, viz. A = 156 = 12,49 = BF.

Then, by the Doctrine of plain Tri-angles, the Arch BA = BCA may



be found in Degrees and Decimal Parts. Thus BC: Radius: $BF: Sine \supset BCF = 51,31$ Degrees. And then it will always hold in this Proportion;

Viz.
As the Circle's Periphery in Degrees: is to its Periphery in equal Parts (according to the Dimensions taken):: So is the Arch in Degrees (viz.

BCA): to the same Arch in equal Parts.

That is, 360° : 100,5312: : $51,31^{\circ}$: 14,3284 = BA. Then $14,3284 \times 16 = 229,2544$, the Area of the Sector BCAG; and $12,49 \times 10 = 124,9$, the Area of the $\triangle BCG$. Their Difference

104,3544 = the Area of the Segm. BAG.

Or the Area of any Segment may be otherwise found (as most usually it is) by a Table of the Segments of a Circle, whose Area is Unity, or 1. The Construction or making of such a Table is very well laid down in Mr. Darie's Book of Gauging, Chap. 9. which he performs in this Problem.

PROBLEM.

In a Circle whose Area is Unity, and its Diameter cut by Chord Lines into 1000 equal Parts, to find the Segment to any versed Sine propos'd, not exceeding 500 of those equal Parts.

- 1. Multiply the versed Sine propos'd by 0,002, and subtract the Product from an Unit or 1.
- 2. This Remainder you shall seek in the common Table of Natural Sines, (the Arch being divided into Degrees and Centesimals) which being sound, let its Co-arch be doubled, and called A.
- 3. You must find the correspondent Sine to A; which Sine being found, you may call S, and then it holds 6,2831853) 0,0174532 925 A—S (= the Segment required.

Now

Now this Segment being thus found, if you subduct it from an

Unit, you have the Co-Segment, &c.

Note, Notwithstanding what has been said in the second Precept of this Problem, it very often falls out that the Remainder there spoken of cannot be truly sound in the Table of Natural Sines; therefore in this Case my Advice is, that you make two Operations, one with a Sine the next greater, and one with a Sine the next less; and in so doing you will be sure to have the Segment requir'd bounded between the Results of those two Operations.

Example, Let it be propos'd to find the correspondent Segment to the versed Sine 263.

First, $263 \times 0.002 = 0.526$, and 1 - 0.526 = 0.474, its Arch is 28.29° being less than just; its Complement is 61.71° , which, being doubled, is 123.42 = A.

Then ,0174533 A = 2,154086286

= 0,8346556 = δ the Sine of A.

6,2831853) 1,319430686 (0,209993 the Segment.

Now I make a second Work.

263 being multiplied with 0,002 is 526. and 1 - 526 = 0,474 its Arch is 28,30° being greater than just; and its Complement is 61,70°, which being doubled is 123,4 = A.

Then 0.0174533 A = 2.1537372

-0.8348478 = S the Sine of A

6,2831853) 1,3188894 (0,209907 the Segment. So you see by these two Operations that the Segment is bounded,

and 'tis very probable it may be 0,20995.

But to abbreviate this large Factor, and this large Divisor, I shall here insert two Tables of them, which will be ready for Use, and exact enough too.

Divisor.	1		Factor.	1
6,2832	1		,0174533	
12,5664	2:	R	,0349066	_
18,8495	3		,0523599	3
25,1327			,0698132	4
31,4159	-		,0872665	5
37,6991	_	_	,1047197	6
43,9823			,1221730	
50,2655			,1396263	
56,5487	19		1,1570796	9

Thus far Mr. Darie, which I have here inserted to shew the Learner how, by the Help of these two Tables, and a Table of Natural Sines, he may easily make a Table of Segments, whose Use shall be shewed tarther on, viz. when I come to treat of practical Gauging. In the mean Time I shall here lay down another Method to find the Area of any Segment of a Cir-

cle (very near) by a new Theorem, without the Help either of a Table of Sines or Segments, having the same Data as before in Page 404.

R= the Radius, or \(\frac{1}{2} \) Diameter of the given Circle. Viz. Let \{ d = the Difference between the versed Sine and Radius. (C = half the Chord of the Segment's Base.

THEOREM. $\begin{cases} \frac{2\frac{1}{3}}{R}R - \frac{1}{3}Rd - dd \\ \times C = S, \text{ the Area of the Segm.} \end{cases}$ $1 \frac{1}{2} R + d$

Example, Suppose R = BC = 16, d = FC = 10, and C =BF = 12,49; as before.

Then $2\frac{1}{3}RR = 597,3333$. $1\frac{1}{3}Rd = 213,3333$. dd = 100 $-313,3333 = 1\frac{1}{3}Rd + dd$

 $1 \cdot R + d = 34 \cdot 284,0000 (8,3529$. Laftly, 8,3529 × 1249 = 104,3276 the Area of the Segment BAG, as before,

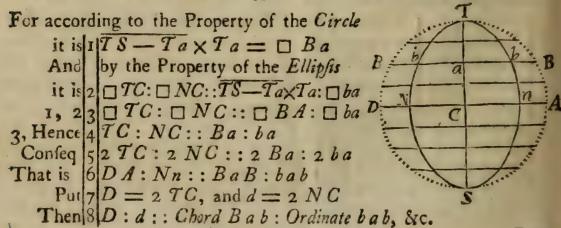
THEOREM VII.

As Squares are to the Area's of their inscribed Circles, so are Parallelograms to the Arca's of their inscribed Ellipses.

As the Square of the Diameter of any Circle: is to its Area: : so is the Rectangle of the Transverse and Con-Ljugate Diameters of any Ellipsis: to its Area.

DemonAration.

Circumscribe any Ellipsis with a Circle; and suppose an infinite Number of Chord Lines drawn therein, all parallel to the Conjugate Diameter, as those in the annexed Figure; then it will (As (D A) the Diameter of the Circle: is to (Nn) the Conjugate Diameter of the Ellipsis: : so is (B a B) any Chord in (the Circle: to (b a b) its respective Ordinate in the Ellipsis.



But

But the Sum of an infinite Series of such Chords, as BaB, do constitute the Area of the Circle, by Definition 3: and the Sum of the like Series of their respective Ordinates, as bab, do constitute the Ellipsis's Area by Definition 4. Therefore D: d:: Circle's Area: Ellipsis's Area, by Lemma 6. But D: d:: DD: Dd. Whence it follows, that DD: Circle's Area:: Dd: Ellipsis's Area. Q. E. D. Consequently, as I: is to 0,7854:: so is the Rectangle or Product of the Transverse and Conjugate Diameters of any Ellipsis: to its Area.

Example, Suppose TS = 36. and Nn = 16; then $36 \times 16 = 576$, and $576 \times 0,7854 = 452,3904$ the Area of the Ellipsis.

Corollaries.

1. Hence it is easy to conceive, that the square Root of the Rectangle or Product of the Transverse and Conjugate Diameters will be the Diameter of a Circle whose Area will be equal to the Ellipsis's Area, viz. \$\square\$ 576 = 24 the Diameter of a Circle = to the Ellipsis.

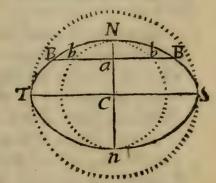
2. All Segments of an Ellipsis and its circumscribing Circle (whose Bases are parallel to the Conjugate Diameter, and of the same Height) are in Proportion one to another, as their Bases are. That is, Bab: bab: Area Segment BNB: Area Segment bNb; or TS: Nn: Area Segment BNB: Area Segment bNb.

THEOREM VIII.

The Area of every Ellipsis is a mean Proportional between the Area's of its circumscribing and inscrib'd Circles.

The Truth of this Theorem may be easily deduced from the last;

for supposing D = T S, and d = N n, as before; then it is already proved, that D D : D d : circum-scribing Circle's Area: Ellipsis's Area. But D D : D d : D d : d d. Therefore Ellipsis's Area: inscrib'd Circle's Area: D d : d d. By Theorem 6.



Example, Let TS = D = 36, and Nn = d = 16, as before; then DD = 1296, and dd = 256.

Then

Then will $\begin{cases} 1296 \times 0.7854 = 1017.8784 \text{ the great Circle's Area.} \\ 256 \times 0.7854 = 201.0624 \text{ the leffer Circle's Area.} \end{cases}$ Suppose A = the Ellipsi's Area; then, according to the Theorem, it will be, 1017,8784: A:: A: 201,0624. Ergo A A = $1017,8784 \times : 201,0624 = 204657.07401216$. Consequently, 1 204657,07401216 = 452,3904 = A, the Area of the Ellipsis as before in the last Example.

Corollary.

From hence it follows, that all Segments of an Ellipsis and its inscrib'd Circle, whose Bases are parallel to the Transvesse Diameter, , and have the same Height, are in Proportion one to another as the Area's of the Ellipsis and Circle are. That is, Area of Circle : Area of Ellipsis: Segment b N b: Segment B N B. Or, Nn: TS :: Area Segment b N b : Area Segment B N B.

THEOREM IX.

The Solid Content of any Prism (what Figure soever its Base is of) is obtained by multiplying the Area of its Base into its Height.

For Instance, a Parallelopipedon (or square Prism) is constituted

of an infinite Series of equal Squares; that of its Base B A being one of the Terms, and its Height DB, or GA, the Number of all the Consequently, the Area of B A bax DB =the Sum of all the Series (by Lemma 1.) which is the Solidity of the Parallelopipedon DB G A, by Definition 10.

Example, Suppose the Side of the Base B A = 16 and the Height DB = 42; then will $16 \times 16 = 256$ be the Area of the Base, and 256 × 42 = 10752 the Solid Content of the Parallelopipedon DB GA.

In this Manner you may find the Solidity of all regular Polygonous Prisms, whose Bases (or Ends) are parallel and alike, what Form soever they are of, that is, whether their Bases are Triangles,

Pentagons, Hexagons, or Octagons, &c.

THEOREM X.

Every Pyramid is the third Part of the Prism, that hath the same Base and Height with it (7. e. 12.)

That is, the Solid Content of the Pyramid BV A (in the last Figure) is one Third of its circumferibing Prism DBG A.

Demonstration.

For every Pyramid that hath a square Base (as B A b a, in the last Figure) is constituted of an infinite Series of Squares, whose Sides or Roots are continually increasing in Arithmetick Progression, beginning at the Vertex or Point V (See Theor. 2.) its Base B A Ba; being the greatest Term (= L L) and its perpendicular Height V C, or DB, is the Number of all the Terms = N; but $\frac{NLL}{3}$ = S the Sum of all the Series, by Lemma 3, and S = the Solid Content of the Pyramid B V A, by Definition 13.

Example, Suppose the Side of a Pyramid's Base be BA = 16, and its Height be VC = 42. Then $16 \times 16 = 256$ the Area of its Base BABa = a, and $\frac{256 \times 42}{3} = 3584$. Or $\frac{356}{3} \times 42 = 3584$ or thus, $256 \times \frac{42}{3} = 3584$, is the Solidity of that Pyramid BVA.

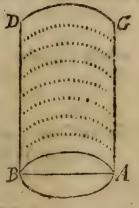
Corollary.

From hence it will be easy to conceive, that every Pyramid is of its circumscribing Prism, what Form soever its Base is of, viz. whether it be a Square, Triangle, Pentagon, &c.

THEOREM XI.

The Solid Content of every Cylinder is obtain'd by multiplying the Area of its Base into its Height.

For every Right Cylinder is only a round Prism, being constituted of an infinite Series of equal Circles; that of its Base or End being one of the Terms, and its Height BD is the Number of all the Terms. Therefore the Area of its Base BA, being multiply'd into DB, will be its Solidity, by Lemma 1. viz. Let D = BA, and H = GA. Then 0,7854 $DD \times H$ = its Solidity.



Example,

Example, Let the Diameter of its Base be D = 16, and its Height H = 42. Then $1:0.7854::16 \times 16 = 256:201.0624$ the Area of its Base. And $201.0624 \times 42 = 8444.6208$ the Solid Content of that Cylinder D B G A.

Corollary.

Hence it is evident that every square Parallelopipedon is to its inferib'd Cylinder, as I: is to 0,7854. Or in whole Numbers, as 452: to 355 very near. And that all Prisms are in Proportion to their inscrib'd Cylinders, as the Area's of their Bases are.

THEOREM XII.

The Curve Superficies of every Right Cylinder is equal to the Rectangle made of its Height into the Periphery of its Base.

That is, DB multiply'd into the Periphery of the Diameter BA, will produce the Curve Superficies of the last Cylinder DB GA. For the Cylinder is constituted of an infinite Series of equal Circles (according to the last Theorem.) Therefore its Curve Superficies is compos'd of the Peripheries of those Circles, by Definition 20. But the Periphery of its Base BA is one of the Terms, and its Height DB is the Number of Terms. Therefore, &c. as by Lemma 1. To which, if there be added the Area's of both its Ends (or Bases) the Sum will be the Superficies of the whole Cylinder.

Example. Suppose the Diameter of its Base to be BA = 16. and its Height DB = 42; as before, then I: 3,1416::16: 50,2656 the Periphery of its Base. Again, $I: 0,7854::16 \times 16$ = 256: 201,0624 the Area of each End or Base.

Then $50,2656 \times 42 = 2111,1552$ the Curve Superficies, to which add $201,0264 \times 2 = 402,1248$ both the End Area's.

The Sum = 2513,2800 is the Superficies of the whole Cylinder.

THEOREM XIII.

Every Cone is the third Part of a Cylinder, having the same Base with it, and their Altitudes equal. (10. e. 12.)

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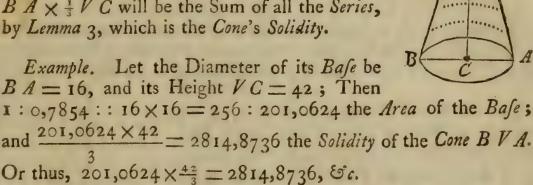
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Demonstration.

The Truth of this Theorem may be easily conceiv'd by only considering, that a Cone is but a round Pyramid, and therefore it must needs have the same Ratio to its circumscribing Cylinder as the square Pyramid hath to its circumscribing Parallelopipedon, viz. as 1: to 3. However, to make it yet clearer, let it be farther

considered, that every Right Cone is constituted of an infinite Series of Circles, whose Diameters do continually encrease in Arithmetick Progression beginning at the Vertex or Point V, the Area of its Base B A being the greatest Term, and its perpendicular Height V G the Number of all the Terms; therefore the Area of the Circle B $A \times \frac{1}{3}$ V G will be the Sum of all the Series, by Lemma 3, which is the Cone's Solidity.



Corollary.

Hence it follows, that every square Pyramid is to its inscrib'd Cone, as 1:0,7854. (Or as 452:355) consequently, that all Pyramids have the same Ratio to their inscrib'd Cones as the Area's of their Bases have.

THEOREM XIV.

The Curve Superficies of every Right Cone is equal to half the Restangle of the Periphery of its Base into the Length of its Side.

The Truth of this Theorem is felf-evident from the Definition of a Cone, Chap. 1, Part IV, where it appears, that the Curve Superficies of every Right Cone (as BVA) is equal to the Area of a Sector of that Circle whose Radius is the Side of the Cone (VB) and its Arch equal to the Periphery of the Cone's Base (BA). But the Area of any Sector is equal to half the Rectangle of the Radius into its Arch, by Theorem 4. Therefore, &c.

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Example. Suppose the Length of the Cone's Side to be VB, or VA = 42,7551, and the Diameter of its Base, viz. BA = 16 (as before) then will 50,2656 be the Periphery of its Base, and $\frac{50,2656\times42,7551}{2} = 1074,5553$, &c. the Curve of the Super-

ficies; to which if there be added the Area of its Base, the Sum will be the Superficies of the whole (viz. all the) Cone.

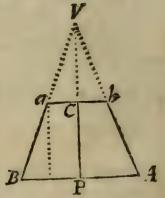
That is, 1074,5553 + 201,0624 the Area of the Base.

Sum 1275,6177 is the total Superficies, &c. Note, The Truth of this Theorem may be prov'd from the Confideration of the last Theorem and Definition 20.

Scholium.

From the 10th and 13th Theorems may be easily deduced several Theorems for finding the solid Content of any Frustum or Part, either of a Pyramid or Cone, cut by a plain Parallel to its Base.

Suppose a square Pyramid, as B V A, to be cut by a Plain at a b, parallel to its Base B A, and it were required to find the Solidity of the Frustum or Part a b A B; let there be given D = B A the Side of the greater Base. d = b a the Side of the lefter Base. H = C P the perpendicular Height.



First, I
$$D-d:H::d:\frac{dH}{D-d}=VC$$
 by the Figure.

Then 2
$$\begin{cases} DD \times \frac{H+VC}{3} = \text{the whole Pyramid } BVA. \\ By Theorem 10. \end{cases}$$
And 3 $dd \times \frac{1}{3}VC = \text{the Pyramid } aVb$ cut off.

Viz. 1, 2 4
$$\begin{cases} DDDH \\ 3D-3d = \text{the whole Pyramid } BVA. \end{cases}$$
And 1, 3 5
$$\begin{cases} \frac{dddH}{3D-3d} = \text{the Pyramid } aVb. \end{cases}$$
4 - 5 6
$$\begin{cases} \frac{DDDH-dddH}{3D-3d} = \text{the Frustum } abAB. \end{cases}$$
6. Reduc. 7
$$\begin{cases} \frac{DDDH-dddH}{3D-3d} = \text{the Frustum } abAB. \end{cases}$$
Which in Words gives this following Theorem.

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THEOREM XV.

To the Rectangle of the Sides of the two Bases, add the Sum of their Squares; that Sum, being multiply'd into one Third of the Frustum's Height, will give its Solidity.

Example. Suppose the Side of the greater Base BA = 16, and the Side of the lesser Base (or Top) ab = 12 the Height CP = 9. Then $16 \times 12 = 192$. $16 \times 16 = 256$. and $12 \times 12 = 144$.

Next 192 + 256 + 144 = 592. and $\frac{592 \times 9}{3} = 1776$. Or 592×3

= 1776 the Content of the Frustum of a square Pyramid.

And if it were the like Frustum of a Right Cone, it may be found by the same Theorem. Supposing $D \equiv$ the Diameter of the greater Base, $d \equiv$ the Diameter of the lesser, and $H \equiv$ the Height of the Frustum, then the Sum of all the Squares which constitute the Frustum of a square Pyramid, are to the Sum of all the Circles which constitute the like Frustum of a right Cone, in the Ratio of I: to 0.7854 (or of 452: to 355) therefore it will be I: 0.7854: $DD + Dd + dd \times \frac{1}{3}H$: 0.7854 DD + 0.7854 D

Again,

Suppose I
$$x \equiv D - d$$
, and $F \equiv$ the Frustum.
Then 2 $DD + Dd + dd \equiv \frac{3F}{H}$, by the 7th Step of the last.
I \oplus^2 3 $xx = DD - 2Dd + dd$
2 - 3 4 3 $Dd = \frac{3F}{H} - xx$
4 ÷ 3 5 $Dd = \frac{F}{H} - \frac{1}{3}xx$, or $Dd + \frac{1}{3}xx = \frac{F}{H}$
5 × H 6 $\overline{Dd + \frac{1}{3}xx} \times H = F$ the Frustum a b A B.

Hence we have another easy Theorem for finding the same Frustum.

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THEOREM XVI.

To the Restangle of the Sides of the two Bases, add one third Part of the Square of their Difference; that Sum, being multiply'd into the Height, will produce the Solidity.

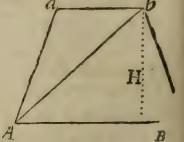
Example. Let D = 16. d = 12. and H = 9, as before; then Dd = 192. D - d = 4 = x. $\frac{1}{3}xx = \frac{4 \times 4}{3} = 5.3333$; and 192 + 5.3333 = 197.3333. Laftly, $197.3333 \times 9 = 1775.9997$ the Solidity of the Frustum of the square Pyramid, as before. And 3.81968) 1775.9997 (1394.87, &c. the like Frustum of a right Cone, as before.

Either of the two last Theorems (being rightly apply'd) will produce the true folid Content of all Frustums of any kind of Pyramids, that are intercepted between two parallel and alike Plains

or Bases: As above.

But if such Frustums are cut through the Extremities of both

Bases by a Diagonal Plain (as Ab in the annexed Figure) into two Parts, Aab and ABb, call'd Hoofs; then the Solidity of those Hoofs is usually found by dividing the middle Term Dd of the \mathbb{E} quation Dd + Dd + dd into two Parts, and adding one of those Parts to the



Square of each Base. Thus, $\overline{DD} + \frac{1}{2}\overline{Dd} \times \frac{1}{3}H =$ the great Hoof ABb, and $\overline{dd} + \frac{1}{2}\overline{Dd} \times \frac{1}{3}H =$ the lesser Hoof Aab of the Frustum of any square Pyramid. Then 3,8197) $\overline{DD} + \frac{1}{2}\overline{Dd} \times H =$ the greater Hoof of a Cone. And 3,8197) $\overline{dd} + \frac{1}{2}\overline{Dd} \times H =$ the lesser Hoof, &c.

These are the *Theorems* made Use of by Mr. Darie, in his Book of Gauging, and are pretty near the Truth, but not exactly so; for they give the Solidity of the upper Hoof Aab a small Matter too big, and the lower Hoof ABb as much too little.

Now, in order to rectify that small Error, I shall here propose the two sollowing Theorems, which come very near the Truth, and are more easily perform'd than those propos'd in the first Impression of this Book.

First, $\overline{DD} + \frac{1}{2}Dd + D - d \times \frac{1}{3}H$ will be the Solidity of the greater Hoof ABb.

Secondly,

Secondly, $\overline{dd + \frac{1}{2}Dd + d - D \times \frac{1}{3}}H$ will give the Solidity of the leffer Hoof A a b, of the Frustum of any square Pyramid.

And for the like Hoofs of the Frustum of any right Cone, it

will be

Thus, 3,8197) $\overline{DD + \frac{1}{2}Dd + D - d \times} *H (= \text{the greater } Hoof.$ And 3,8197) $\overline{dd + \frac{1}{2}Dd + d - D \times} H (= \text{the lefter } Hoof.$

Note, In order to avoid many Words in the following Demonstrations, let of signify any Circle in general; and if any two Letters be join'd to it, thus, of BA, &c. it then denotes the Area of such a Circle as those two Letters represent the Radius of.

THEOREM XVII.

The Superficies of every Sphere (or Globe) is equal to four Times the Area of its greatest Circle.

That is, of a Circle whose Diameter is the Axis of the Sphere.

Demonstration.

If any Semicircle (as ATGS) be turn'd or mov'd about its Diameter (TS) it will describe a solid Body call'd a Sphere, which

will be constituted of an infinite Series of concentrick or parallel Circles, whose Diameters are Chords, viz. © a b, © e d, © e f, &c. by Definition 14. Confequently, the Superficies of the Sphere will be compos'd of the Peripheries of those Circles which constitute its Solidity, by Definition 20.

Let D = TS, the Axis of any Sphere. Then, according to the Property of a

Circle, it

will be | I |
$$D - Tb \times Tb = \Box ab$$

That is, | 2 | $D \times Tb - \Box Tb = \Box ab$

Therefore | 3 | $D \times Tb = \Box aT$, for $\Box ab + \Box Tb = \Box aT$.

And $\begin{cases} 4 & D \times Td = \Box eT \\ D \times Tf = \Box yT$, &c.

^{*} The Error is here corrected, which Mr. J. Robertson takes Notice of in his Book, entitled, A Compleat Treatise of Mensuration, Page 160.

Hence

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Hence 'tis evident, that the Series \(\begin{aligned} a T, \Delta T, \Delta Y, &c. \end{aligned} are in the same Ratio with Tb, Td, Tf, &c. viz. in Arithmetick Progression; whence it follows, that the @ a T = the Sum of all the Circle's Peripheries between T and b, and o e T = the Sum of all the Circle's Peripheries between T and d, &c. Consequently, that the O AT = the Sum of all the Circle's Peripheries included between T and C; that is, O AT = the Superficies of the Hemi-Sphere. And because $\square AC + \square TC = \square AT$, and $\square AC = \square TC$. Therefore $\bigcirc AT = 2 \bigcirc AC$ is the Superficies of the Hemisphere. Consequently, 4 O AC will be the Superficies of the whole Sphere. Q. E. D.

Example. Suppose the Axis TS = D = 16. Then DD = 256, and I: 0.7854:: 256: 201.0624 = 0 AC, for $\frac{1}{2}$ D = AC. Then 201,0624 × 4 = 804,2496, the Superficies of the whole Sphere. Or, because 3,1416 is four Times 0,7854, therefore it will always be 1:3,1416:: DD: 3,1416 DD, the Superficies of the Sphere (as before); and it is equal to the curve Superficies of the right Cylinder, whose Diameter and Height are each = D the Axis of the Sphere. For 3,1416 D = the Periphery of the Cylinder's Base, and that, multiply'd with D its Height, will be 3,1416 DD the curve Superficies of the Cylinder, by Theorem 12. And if to this there be added the Area of its two Bases (or Ends) viz. 1,5708 DD, then 'tis evident, that the whole Superficies of the Cylinder will be to that of the Sphere in Proportion of 3 to 2.

Scholium.

From the Method here used in proving the last Theorem 'twill be easy to find the curve Superficies of any Segment, or Part of a Sphere, that is cut off by a Right Line or Plain, viz. fuch as the Segment a T m in the last Scheme, whose curve Superficies is @ a T (as above). Therefore (because $\Box ab + \Box Tb = \Box aT$) it will be @ a b + @ T b = the curve Superficies of that Segment.

But if the Axis T S, and Height T b, of the Segment are given, then will it be $TS \times Tb \square aT$; as in the third Step above: Which gives this Proportion or Theorem;

Viz.

As the Axis of the Sphere: is to the whole Superficies of the Sphere:: so is the Height of any Segment to its curve Superficies.

To which if there be added the Area of the Segment's Base, the

Sum will be the Superficies of the whole Segment.

THEOREM XVIII.

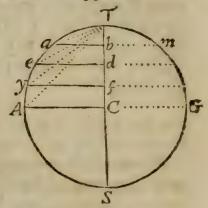
Every Sphere is equal to two Thirds of its circumscribing Cylinder.

That is, of a Cylinder whose Height and Diameter of its Base are each equal to the Axis of the Sphere.

Demonstration.

According to the Work in the last Theorem it appears, that

⊙ ab, ⊙ ed, ⊙ yf, &c. do conftitute the Solidity of the Sphere; and that \Box a T, \Box e T, \Box y T, &c. are a Series of Terms in Arithmetick Progression, \Box A T being the greatest Term, and T C the Number of Terms; therefore ⊙ A $T \times \frac{1}{2}$ T C = the Sum of all the Series, per Lemma 2. And because \Box a T = \Box a b, \Box e T = \Box f = \Box f



&c. wherein \Box Tb, \Box Td, \Box Tf, &c. are a Series of Squares whose Roots Tb, Td, Tf, are in Arithmetick Progression, \Box TC being the greatest Term, and TC the Number of Terms; therefore \bigcirc $TC \times \frac{1}{3}TC =$ the Sum of all that Series, per Lemma 3, confequently, \bigcirc $AT \times \frac{1}{3}TC - \bigcirc$ $TC \times \frac{1}{3}TC =$ the Sum of the Series \bigcirc ab, \bigcirc ed, \bigcirc yf, &c. which constitute the Solidity of the half Sphere ATG. Put D = 2TC the Axis of the Sphere; then $\frac{1}{4}D = \frac{1}{2}TC$, and $\frac{1}{6}D = \frac{1}{3}TC$. And because \Box $AT = 2 \Box$ TC; therefore \bigcirc $AT = 2 \bigcirc$ TC = 1,5708 DD. And $1,5708 DD \times \frac{1}{4}D = 0,3927 DDD$.

Again, $DTC \times \frac{1}{3}TC = 0.7854$ $DD \times \frac{1}{6}D = 0.1309$ DDD, then 0.3927 DDD = 0.1309 DDD = 0.2618 DDD the Solidity of the Semi-Sphere ATG; consequently, 0.2618 $DDD \times 2 = 0.5236$, DDD will be the solid Content of the whole Sphere, which is equal to two Thirds of the Cylinder whose Diameter of its Base and Height DDD = 0.7854 DDD = 0.5236 DDD; as between 11. But $\frac{2}{3}$ of 0.7854 DDD = 0.5236 DDD; as be-

fore. Therefore, &c. : as by Theorem,

Example. Suppose the Axis D = 16, then DDD = 4096, and 1:0,5236::4096:2144,6656 the folid Content of that Sphere.

Corollaries.

- 1. Hence it appears, that the folid Content of every Sphere is equal to its Superficies multiply'd into one fixth Part of its Axis. For its Superficies is 3,1416 DD, by Theorem 17. But 3,1416 \times $\frac{1}{6}D = 0,5236 DDD$ the folid Content, as before.
- 2. And hence 'tis also evident, that there is the like Ratio or Habitude between the Cube and its inscrib'd Sphere, as is betwixt the Square and its inscrib'd Circle; and that is, as the Superficies of any Cube: is to the Superficies of its inscrib'd Sphere: so is the folid Content of that Cube: to the folid Sphere: [See the Circle's Proportion, Page 407.] For if D= the Side of the Sube, then Side of the Sube and Sube of the Sube of the

Scholium.

From the Proof of this Theorem 'twill be easy to deduce or raise Theorems for finding the solid Content of any Frustum or Segment of a Sphere, as a T m in the last Figure. For we there suppose the Segment a T m to be constituted of an infinite Series of Circles, which have the same Ratio with all those Circles that constitute the Semi-sphere. Therefore it follows, that \bigcirc a $t \times \frac{1}{2}Tb$ — \bigcirc b $T \times \frac{1}{3}Tb$ will be the Sum of all the Circles intercepted between T and b. Consequently 'twill be the Solidity of that Segment. And because \square a $b + \square$ T b = \square a T: therefore \square a $b + \square$ D b D a D the solidity.

Let $c \equiv a \ b$ half the Segment's Base; $b \equiv T \ b$ its Height; and $S \equiv$ the Solidity of the Segment or Frustum: Then $\odot \ a \ b \equiv 3,14$ 16cc, and $\odot T \ b \equiv 3,14$ 16hb. Consequently,

3,1416cch+3,1416hhh _ 3,1416hhh = S, which being reduced

will become $3cch + hhh \times 0,5236 = S$. Or 1,909855) 3cch + hhh (= S. for 0,5236) 1,0000 (1,909855. Which is one Theorem for finding the Frustum's Solidity.

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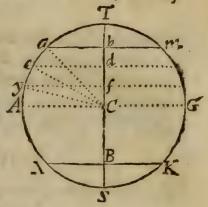
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Note, Here we suppose the Height of the Segment, and the Diameter of its Base to be given; but if the Axis of the Sphere, and the Height of the Segment be given, then putting D = the Sphere's Axis, h = the Segment's Height, and c as before, 'twill be $\overline{D-h} \times h = cc$, viz. Dh-hb=cc. Therefore 3Dhh-2hhb=3ch+hbh. consequently $3Dhh-2hhb\times 0$, 5236 = S, the Frustum's Solidity. Or 1,90985) 3Dhh-2hhh(=S), as before. Which is a second Theorem for finding the same Frustum a Tm.

And if it be requir'd to find the middle Part am NK, usually

call'd the middle Zone of a Sphere, then because 'tis suppos'd that am = NK, or which is all one, that bC = CB, therefore it is plain, that, if twice the Segment aTm be taken from the Solidity of the whole Sphere, there will remain the Middle Zone am NK. But, because that Work is a little troublesome, I shall here shew how to raise a Theorem for the doing it.



First, Because AC = yC = eC = aC = TC. Therefore it will be $\Box AC - \Box Cf = \Box yf$. $\Box AC - \Box Cd = \Box ed$. $\square AC - \square Cb = \square ab$, &c. Here because $\square AC \cdot \square AC$. AC, &c. are a Series of Equals, and Cb the Number of all the Terms, therefore $\square AC \times Cb =$ the Sum of all that Series, by Lemma 1. And \square Cf. \square Cd. \square Cb, &c. being a Series of Squares whose Roots are in Arithmetick Progression, beginning at the Center or Point C, viz. o, Cf, Cd, Cb, &c. wherein the greatest Term is Cb, and Number of Terms is Cb. Ergo [$C b \times \frac{1}{3} C b =$ the Sum of all the Series by Lemma 3. Confequently, the $\bigcirc AC \times Cb - \bigcirc Cb \times \frac{1}{2}Cb =$ the Sum of all the Series O y f. O e d. O a b, &c. which do constitute the Solidity of the balf Zone a m AG. And because \(\subseteq AC - \subseteq Cb = \(a b. \) Ergo \(\omega AC - \omega ab = \(\omega C b. \) Consequently \(\omega AC \) OAC-OabxCb $= \overline{2 \odot AC + \odot ab} \times \frac{1}{3} Cb \text{ will be the}$ Solidity of the half Zone.

Put D = AG = 2 AG. x = am and H = bB = 2 Cb. Then OAC = 0.7854 DD. Oab = 0.7854 xx. And if we turn the common Factor 0.7854 into the Divisor 1.27323. 426

and then take the Triple of that Divisor, viz. 3.8197 (as before in the Frustum of Pyramids) the Result of the precedent Work will produce this following Theorem.

THEOR. XIX. $\left\{ \frac{2DD + xx}{3,8197} : \times H = \right\}$ the middle Zone am

THEOREM XX.

Spheres are in Proportion one to another as the Cubes of their Diameters. (18. e. 12.)

Demonstration.

Suppose $D \equiv$ the Diameter or Axis of any Sphere, and $d \equiv$ the Diameter of another Sphere, either greater or lesser. Then is 0.5236 $DDD \equiv$ the Solidity of one Sphere, and 0.5236ddd \equiv the Solidity of the other Sphere, by Theorem 18. But DDD:ddd:0.5236DDD:0.5236ddd. Q. E. D.

THEOREM XXI.

The folid Content of every Spheroid is equal to two Thirds of its circumscribing Cylinder.

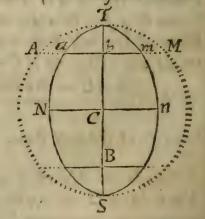
Demonstration.

Suppose the Figure NTnSN in the annex'd Scheme, to represent a Spheroid, form'd by the Rotation of the Semi-Ellipsis TNS,

about its Transverse Axis TS (as by Definition 15.)

Let $D \equiv TS$, the Length of the Spheroid, and the Axis of its circumscribing Sphere; and $d \equiv Nn$, the Diameter of the greatest Circle of the Spheroid. Then because $\Box TC : \Box NC :: \Box Ab : \Box ab$, by Step 3 in Theor. 7, therefore it will be $DD : dd :: \Box Ab : \Box ab :: \odot Ab : \odot ab$, &c. But the Sum of an infinite Series

of such Circles as \bigcirc Ab (whose Diameters are Chords) do constitute the Solidity of the Sphere, (as before at Theorem 18) and the Sum of an infinite Series of such Circles as \bigcirc ab (viz. whose Diameters are Ordinates of the Ellipsis) do constitute the Solidity of the Spheroid, by Definition 15. Ergo DD: dd::0,5236 DDD:0,5236ddD = the Solidity of the Spheroid, by Lemma 6.



But

But 0,5236dd $D = \frac{2}{3}$ of the Cylinder whose Diameter is $\equiv d$, and Q. E. D. Height $\equiv D$, by Theorem 11.

Now, from this Proportion between the Sphere and its inscrib'd Spheroid, 'twill be very easy to deduce Theorems for finding the Solid Content either of the Segment or middle Zone of any Spheroid, having the same Height with that of the Sphere.

For { As the Solidity of the whole Sphere: is to the Solidity of the whole Spheroid: : so is any Part of the Sphere: to the like Part of the Spheroid, by the Converse to Lemma 6.

As for Instance; suppose it were requir'd to find the middle Zone of any Spheroid: Let $D \equiv TS$, and $d \equiv Nn$, as above; and H = b B, x = A M, as in Theorem 19, and let c = a m. Then $\frac{2DD + xx}{3,8197} \times H =$ the middle Zone of the Sphere. And 0,5236 DDD $: 0.5236 \, dd \, D: : \frac{2DD + xx}{3.8197} \times H: \frac{2dd \times H}{3.8197} + \frac{xx \, dd \times H}{3.8197 \, DD} =$

middle Zone of the Spheroid.

Again, DD:dd::xx:cc, therefore $\frac{x \times dd}{DD} = cc$. consequent-

ly, $\frac{x \times dd}{DD} \times \frac{H}{3.8197} = \frac{cc}{3.8197} \times H$, which being taken instead

of $\frac{x \times dd \times H}{3,8197DD}$, there will arise this following

THEOREM XXII. $\left\{ \frac{2dd+cc}{3,8197} : \times H = \right\}$ the middle Zone of the Spheroid being the very same with Theorem 19.

Note, In the same Manner you may raise Theorems for finding the Segment of a Spheroid, cut off at either of its Ends, &c.

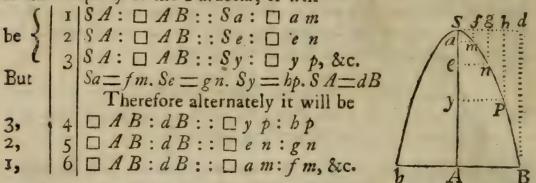
THEOREM XXIII.

The Area of every Parabola is equal to two Thirds of its circumscribing Parallelogram.

Demonaration.

Let the Figure SAB represent half a Parabola. Make DB parallel to the Axis S A, and S d parallel to the Semi-Ordinate A B, and suppose S d to be divided into an infinite Series of equidistant Iii 2 Points. 428

Points, as f, g, h, &c. and from those Points imagine a Series of parallel Lines, viz. f m, g n, h p, &c. to touch the Curve of the Parabola, and meet the Semiordinates ma, ne, y p, &c. Then, according to the Property of the Parabola, it will



In these Proportions \(\sigma a m, \subseteq e n, \subseteq y p, &cc. are a Series of Squares whose Roots S f, S g, S h, &c. are in Arithmetick Progression, beginning at the Point S. And because the Lines hp, gn, fm, &c. have the same Ratio, therefore they are as such a Series of Squares, wherein d B is the greatest Term, and S d the Number of Terms. Confequently $\frac{dB \times Sd}{2}$ = the Sum of all those Lines, by Lemma 3.

But $SA \times AB = dB \times Sd$. Therefore $\frac{SA \times AB}{}$ = the Sum of all that Series of Lines; but all those Lines do constitute the Area of the Semi-Parabola's Complement, viz. the Area of what half the Parabola wants of compleating or filling up the Parallelogram S d A B. Wherefore $SA \times AB = \frac{1}{3}SA \times AB = \frac{2SA \times AB}{3}$ will be the Area of half the Parabola S AB. Consequently, $\frac{2}{3}$ S $A \times b$ B will be the Area of the whole Parabola b S B. Q. E. D.

Example. Suppose the Base, or greatest Ordinate, of a Parabela to be b B = 24, and its intercepted Diameter (or Axis) be S A =33; then $2SA \times bB = 66 \times 24 = 1584$, and 3) 1584 (528 the Area of that Parabola.

THEOREM XXIV.

Every Parabolick Convid is equal to one Half of its circumscribing Cylinder.

Demons

Demonstration.

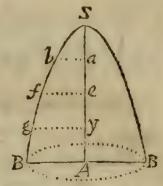
If any Semi-Parabola (as B S A) be turn'd or mov'd about its Axis (S A) 'twill form a folid Parabolical Conoid, constituted of an infinite Series of Circles, viz. \odot b a, \odot f e, \odot g y, &c. by Definition 17.

Now, according to the Property of every Parabola, it will be,

 $SA:AB::AB:\frac{\square AB}{SA}=L$, the Latus Rectum.

Then $\begin{cases} Sa \times L = \Box ba \\ Se \times L = \Box fe \\ Sy \times L = \Box gy, &c. \end{cases}$

Here $Sa \times L$, $Se \times L$, $Sy \times L$, &c. are a Series of Terms in Arithmetick Progression: therefore \Box b a, \Box fe, \Box gy, &c. are also a Series of Terms in the same Progression, beginning at the Point S; wherein \Box AB is the greatest Term, and SA the Number of all



the Terms. Therefore \square $AB \times \frac{1}{2} SA =$ the Sum of all the Series by Lemma 2. Consequently, \bigcirc $AB \times \frac{1}{2} SA =$ the Sum of all the Series \bigcirc ba, \bigcirc fe, \bigcirc gy, &c. which do constitute the Solidity of the Conoid. And putting D = 2AB, and H = SA. Then 0,7854 $DD \times \frac{1}{2}H = 0,3927 DDH$ will be the solid Content of the Conoid, which is just half the Cylinder whose Base = D and Height = H. [See Theorem 11.]

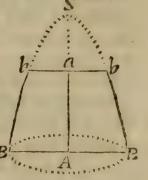
This being understood, 'twill be easy to raise a Theorem for finding the lower Frustum of any Parabolick Conoid. For supposing h = a A the Height of the Frustum, and p = S a the Height of the Part b S b cut off; then b + p = S A, the Height of the whole Conoid. Consequently, $\frac{\bigcirc AB \times b + AB \times p}{2} = Solidity$ of

the whole Conoid. And $\frac{ba+p}{2}$ = the Solidity of the Part cut off.

dity of the Part cut off.

Ergo

I $\begin{cases}
\frac{\bigcirc AB \times b + \bigcirc AB \times p - \bigcirc ba \times p}{2} = \\
\text{the Solidity of the Frustum.} \\
b + p : \square AB :: p : \square ba
\end{aligned}$ Conseq. 3 b + p : $\bigcirc AB :: p : \bigcirc ba$ 3 \therefore 4 $\bigcirc AB \times p = \bigcirc ba \times b + \bigcirc ba \times p$



430 The Arithmetick of Infinites, Part V.

Let D = AB, as before, and d = 2ba the Diameter of the Part cut off; then we shall have this following

THEOREM XXV. ${0,3927 DD + 0,3927 dd \times b = \text{the} \atop \text{Solidity of the Frustum requir'd.}}$

Or $\left\{ \frac{DD + dd}{2,5404} \right\}$ h = the Fru fum; for ,3927) 1,0000 (=2,5464)

and because 2,5464 + $\frac{2,5464}{2}$ = 3,8196; therefore it may be

made 3,8196) $\overline{DD + dd \times \frac{1}{2}} h$ (= the same Frustum, &c.

Note, The Reason why I have reduced this Theorem to have the same Divisor with those at the Frustums of Pyramids, &c. will best appear farther on, viz. when they all come to be apply'd to Practice in Gauging.

THEOREM XXVI.

Every Parabolick Spindle (or Pyramidoid) is equal to eight Fifteenths of its circumfcribing Cylinder.

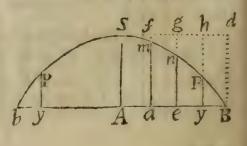
DemonGration.

If any acute Parabola, as b S B, be turn'd or mov'd about its greatest Ordinate b A B, it will form a Solid call'd a Parabolick Spindle, constituted of an infinite Series of \odot ma, \odot ne, \odot p y, &c. by Definition 18.

Let us suppose the Line Sd, parallel to AB, &c. (as at Theorem 23) then it hath already been prov'd, that the Lines fm, gn, hp, &c. are a Series of Squares whose Roots are in Arithmetick Progrefsion: consequently their Squares, viz. $\Box fm$, $\Box gn$, $\Box hp$. &c.

will be a Series of Biquadrates, whose Roots will be in Arithmetick Progreffion: which being premis'd, we may proceed thus.

First,
$$\begin{cases} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & SA - fm = ma \\ 2 & SA - gn = ne \\ 3 & SA - bp = py &c. \end{cases}$$



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$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
In these Equations the $\square SA$, $\square SA$ being a Series of Equals, and AB the Number of all the Terms; therefore it will
be $\square SA \times AB =$ the Sum of the Series, by Lemma 1. 2. Because $f m$, $g n$, $h p$, &c. are as a Series of Squares where-
in S A is the greatest Term, and AB the Number of all the Terms; therefore $\frac{2SA \times SA \times AB}{3} = \frac{2 \Box SA \times AB}{3}$ will be the Sum of all that
3. And the $\Box f m$, $\Box g n$, $\Box h p$, &c. will be a Series of Terms in the Ratio of Biquadrates, as above; $\Box dB \equiv \Box SA$
being the greatest Term, and AB the Number of all the Terms; therefore it will be $\frac{\Box SA \times AB}{5}$ = the Sum of all that Series, by
Lemma 5.
Whence it follows, that $\Box S A \times AB - \frac{2 \Box S A \times AB}{3} +$
$\frac{\square S A \times AB}{5} = \text{the Sum of all the Series of } \square ma, \square ne, \square py,$
&c. That is, $\frac{8 \square SA \times AB}{15}$ = the Sum of all the Series of \square ma, \square ne, \square hp, \square dB. &c. consequently, $\frac{8 \odot SA \times AB}{15}$ = the Sum
\square ne, \square hp, \square dB. &c. consequently, $\frac{8 \odot 3 A \times AB}{15}$ = the Sum
of all the Series of \odot ma, \odot ne, \odot py, &c which do constitute the Solidity of half the Spindle, viz. of S AB. Therefore putting
D=2SA, and $H=2AB$, (viz. bAB) it will be 0,41888 DDH
= the Solidity of the whole Parabolick Spindle b S B, being \(\frac{3}{5}\) of 0,7854 DDH the Solidity of its circumfcribing Cylinder. Q. E. D. From hence we may also raise a Theorem for finding the Frustum
SApy of the last Figure. For O SA being the greatest Term,
Opy the least Term, and Ay the Number of all the Terms or Circles included between A and y,
Therefore I $\begin{cases} \Box SA - \frac{2SA \times bp}{3} + \frac{\Box bp}{5} \times Ay = z \text{ the Sum} \\ \text{of all the Series } \Box SA, \Box ma, \Box gn, \Box py \end{cases}$ $1 \times 3 2 3 \Box SA - 2SA \times bp + \frac{3\Box bp}{5} \times Ay = 3Z$
$1 \times 3 = 3 = SA - 2SA \times hb + 3 = hb \times Av = 22$

$$2 \div A \gamma \qquad 3 \qquad 3 \qquad S A - 2 S A \times hp + \frac{3 \qquad hp}{5} = \frac{3z}{Ay}$$
But
$$4 \qquad S A - 2 S A \times hp = q py - q hp, \text{ by 6th Step.}$$

$$3 - 4 \qquad 5 \qquad 2 \qquad S A + \frac{3 \qquad hp}{5} = \frac{3z}{Ay} - q py + q hp$$

$$5 + &c. \qquad 6 \qquad 2 \qquad S A + q py - \frac{2}{3} \qquad hp = \frac{3z}{Ay}$$
Conseq.
$$7 \qquad 2 \qquad S A + q py - \frac{2}{3} \qquad hp = \frac{3z}{Ay}$$

$$7 \qquad 2 \qquad S A + q py - \frac{2}{3} \qquad hp = \frac{3z}{Ay}$$

of all the Series of \odot S A, \odot m a, \odot n e, \odot p y, which do constitute the Solidity of the Frustum S A p y. Therefore putting D = 2 S A, as before, C = 2 p v, x = 2 h p, and H = A y, it will be $1,5708DD + 0,7854CC - 0,31416xx \times \frac{1}{3}H =$ the Frustum S A p y. And if we make L = 2 H. Then $1.5708 DD + 0.854 CC - 0.31416 xx \times \frac{1}{3} L = Double of$ that Frustum, being the middle Zone. And by turning these Factors into one common Divisor, as in the Frustum of the Conoid at Theorem 25, Page 430, there will arise this following Theorem.

XXVII. THEOREM

{ 3,8196) 2 $DD + CC - 0,4xx \times L$ (= the middle Zone of a Parabolick Spindle.

It may be here expected that I should now proceed to shew how the Area of any Hyperbola, and the Contents of such Solids as may be form'd by the Rotation of that Figure about its Axis, &c. may be found; but because those Things cannot be exactly perform'd by any certain or settled Theorem, as these of the Circle, Ellipsis, and Parabola have been, I have therefore omitted them, and refer the Reader to Dr. Wallis's Algebra, Chap. 90, &c. or to the Philosoph. Transact. Numb. 34, wherein he may find the Method of forming infinite Series relating to the squaring of an Hyperbola, &c. which are too tedious to be fully explain'd and demonstrated in this small Tract, it being only intended as an Introduction, the which I shall here conclude.

APPENDIX

OF

Practical Gauging.

HE Art of Gauging is that Branch of the Mathematicks called Stereometry, or the Measuring of Solids, because the Capacities or Contents of all Sorts of Vessels used for Liquors, &c. are computed as the they were really solid Bodies; which any one that hath made himself Master of the 'foregoing Parts of this Treatise may easily understand, without any farther Directions.

However, because 'tis not to be suppos'd that every one, who designs to undertake the Office or Employment of a Gauger, hath made so great a Progress in Mathematical Learning, I have therefore presented the young Gauger with this Appendix, wherein I have only inserted such Rules as are useful in Gauging, and have been already demonstrated in this Treatise. But herein, I presuppose that he hath acquir'd (or if not, 'tis very necessary he should acquire) a competent Knowledge both in Arithmetick and

Geometry: That is,

I. In Arithmetick he should understand the principal Rules very well, especially Multiplication and Division, both in whole Numbers and Decimal Parts, (which may be easily learnt out of the 2d, 3d, and 5th Chapters of Part 1.) that so he may be ready at computing the Contents of any Vessel, and casting up his Gauges by the Pen only, viz. without the Help of those Lines of Numbers upon Sliding Rules, so much applauded, and but too much practis'd, which at best do but help to guess at the Truth; I mean fuch Pocket-Rules as are but nine Inches (or a Foot) long, whose Radius of the double Line of Numbers is not fix Inches; and therefore the Graduations or Divisions of those Lines are so very close, that they cannot be well distinguish'd. 'Tis true, when the Rules are made two or three Feet long (I had one of fix Feet) there they may be of some Use, especially in small Numbers; altho' even then the Operations may be much better (and almost as foon) done by the Pen: For, indeed, the chief Use of Sliding-Rules is only in taking of Dimensions, and for that Purpose they are very convenient.

II. In

II. In Geometry the Gauger should understand not only how to take Dimensions (which is best learnt by Practice) but also how to divide any irregular Figure or Superficies, as Brewers Backs or Coolers, &c. into the easiest and sewest regular Figures they will admit of, that so their Area's may be truly computed with the least Trouble. And this may be learn'd (with a little Care and Diligence) out of the 1st, 2d, and 5th Chapters of Part III, which the Gauger should be well acquainted with. Also he ought to have fo much Skill in Solids, as to be able, even at fight (but this must be acquired by Experience) to determine what fort of Figure any Vessel is of (viz. any Tun or close Cask) or what Figures it may be best reduced to, so that its Dimensions may be truly taken, and the Content thereof computed with the least Error. I fay, with the least Error, because 'tis very difficult, if not impossible, to do it exactly; for there is not any Tun, or close Cask, &c. so regularly made, as by the Rules of Art 'tis requir'd to be.

III. Besides the aforemention'd, the young Gauger must know, that all Dimensions useful in Gauging are to be taken in Inches, and Decimal Parts of an Inch; and if they are taken in any other Measures, as Feet, Yards, &c. those Measures must be reduced to Inches, (see Sect. 4. Page. 42.) because the Contents of all Sorts of Vessels (taken Notice of in Gauging) are computed by the Standard Gallon of its Kind, whose Content is known to be a certain Number of Cubick Inches; That is, the Beer or Ale Gallon contains 282, the Wine 231, and the Corn Gallon 268, 8 Cubick Inches. [See the five Tables, &c. in Pages 34, 35, 36, which I here suppose the Gauger to have learnt perfectly, by heart.] Consequently, if either the superficial or solid Content of any Vessel, as Back, Tun, Cask, &c. be once computed in Cubick Inches, 'twill be easy to know how many Gallons, either of Ale, Wine, or

Corn, that Vessel will hold.

Note, I have here said, the Superficial Content in Cubick Inches, which may seem to be very improper, according to the Definition given of a Superficies in Page 279; but you must know, that, in the Business of Gauging, all Superficies or Area's are always understood to be one Inch deep, otherwise it could not be said (as in the Gauger's Language it is) that the Area of such a Back, or

of such a Circle, &c. is so many Gallons.

These Things being very well understood, the young Gauger will be fitly prepar'd to understand the following *Problems*, which are such as have (most of them) been already propos'd in the 'foregoing Parts of this Treatise, and only are here apply'd to Practice; and therefore I shall, for Brevity's Sake, often refer to those Theorems and Problems.

Sect. 1. To find the Area of any right-lined Superficies in Gallons.

PROBLEM I.

To find the Area of any square Tun, Back, or Cooler, &c. either in Ale, Wine, or Corn Gallons.

RULE.
Multiply the given Length or Breadth (being here equal) into itself, and the Product will be the Area in Inches; then divide that Area by 282, or 231, or 268,8 and the Quotient will be the Area requir'd.

Example. Suppose the Side of a Square Tun, Back, or Cooler be 124,5 Inches, what will its Area be in Gallons?

First 124,5 × 124,5 = 15500,25 the Area in Inches.

Then 282
And 231
Or 268,8

15500,25

15500,25

15500,25

15500,25

15500,25

15500,25

15500,25

15500,25

15500,25

15500,25

15500,25

156,10 & c.

157,66 & c.

157,66 & c.

157,66 & c.

157,66 & c.

But if any one would rather work by Multiplication than by Division, he may turn or change any Divisor into a Multiplicator, if he divide Unity, or 1, by that Divisor. (Vide Probl. 3, Pag. 402.)

Thus 282 And 231 Or 268,8 1,000000 {0,003546} o,004329 the Multipli. for { M.Gallons. W.Gallons. C. Gallons.

Consequently 15500,25×0,003546 = 54,96 &c. the Area in Ale Gallons; as before and so on for the rest.

PROBLEM II.

To find the Area of any Tun, Back, or Cooler in the Form of a Right-angled Parallelogram in Ale Gallons, &c.

See the Rule for finding its Area in Inches, at Probl. 1. P. 339, then either divide (or multiply) that Area as above, and you will have the Area in Gallons.

Example. Suppose the Length of a Brewer's Tun, Back, or Cooler be 217,5 Inches, and its Breadth 85,6 Inches, what will its Area be in Ale or Beer Gallons, &?

First 217,5×85,6 = 18648. Then 282) 18648 (66,12, &c. Or18648×0,003546 = 66,12, &c. the Area requir'd, &c. K k k 2 P R O

PROBLEM III.

To find the Area of any Triangular Tun, Back, or Cooler, in Ale Gallons, &c.

See the Rule for finding its Area in Inches at Prob. 3, p. 340; then divide (or multiply) that Area as before, and you will have the Area requir'd.

Example. If the Length of the Base of a Triangular Cooler be 86,4 Inches, and its Perpendicular Breadth be 57 Inches, what will its Area be in Ale Gallons?

First, 86, $4 \times ^{67} = 2462,4$. Then 282) 2462,4 (8,73 &c. Or 2462,4 \times 0,003546 = 8,73 &c. the Area in Ale Gallons. Proceeding thus, you may easily find the Area of any Tun, Back,

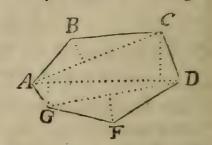
Proceeding thus, you may easily find the Area of any Tun, Back, or Cooler, whether it be in the Form of a Rhombus, Rhomboides, Trapezium, or any other Polygon, either regular or irregular, in Ale or Beer Gallons, &c. if you first divide it into Triangles, and then find the Area's of those Triangles; (as in the 2d, 4th, 5th, and 6th Problems in Chap. 5, Part III.) the Sum of those Area's being divided (or multiply'd) by its proper Divisor (or Multiplicator) as above, will give the Area requir'd.

Now, the Practical Way of dividing any Polygonous Tun, Back, &c. into Triangles, is by help of a chalk'd Line, such as

the Carpenters use, and may be thus perform'd.

Suppose any Brewer's Tun, Back, or Cooler in the Form of the annex'd Figure ABCDFG. Let one End of the chalk'd Line be fatten'd with a Nail (or otherwise) in any Corner or Angle

of the Back, as at A; then straining it to the Angle at C, strike the Diagonal Line AC, upon the Bottom of the Back; and straining it again to the Angle D, strike another Diagonal Line, as AD, and so on for the Diagonal Line GD, &c. Then having



mark'd out all the Diagonals, the Perpendiculars may be thus found: Fasten (as before) one End of the chalk'd Line in the Angle B, and then, by moving it to and fro upon the Stretch, find out the nearest Distance between the Angle at B and the Diagonal Line AC; and there strike a Line, and it will mark out the Perpendicular from B to the Line AC, and so on for the other Perpendiculars: Which being all mark'd out upon the Bottom of the Back, measure them and each Diagonal by a Line of

Inches, &c. and then the Area of that Back may be computed, as directed above.

And here, by the Way, it may be observed, that the Number of Triangles will always be less by two, and the Number of the Diagonals less by three, than the Number of the Sides of any

Right-lin'd Figure that is fo divided.

Having found (as above) the true Area of any Brewer's Back or Cooler (which, according to the Laws of Excise, ought always to be fix'd or immoveable) the next Thing will be to find out the true dipping or gauging Place in that Back, that so the true Quantity of Worts may be computed or (cast up) at any Depth; which may be thus done.

1. When the Bottom of the Back is covered all over (of any Depth) either with Worts or Liquor (viz. Water) then dip it in eight or ten several Places (more or less according to the Largeness of the Back) as remote and equally distant one from another as you well can, noting down the wet Inches and decimal Parts of every Dip.

2. Divide the Sum of all those Dips or wet Inches by the Number of Places you dipp'd in, and the Quotient will be the mean

Wet of all those Dips.

3. Lastly, find out such a Place by the Side of the Back (if you can) that just wets the same with that mean Dip, and make a Notch or Mark there, for the true and constant Dipping-place of that Back. Then if any Quantity of Worts (which do cover the whole Back) be dipp'd or gaug'd at that Place, and the wet Inches so taken be multiply'd into the Area of the Back in Gallons, the Product will shew what Quantity (viz. how many Gallons) of Worts are in that Back at that Time, provided the Sides of the Back do stand at Right Angles with its Bottom.

Sect. 2. To find the Area of any Circular and Elliptical Superficies in Gallons.

1. I have demonstrated in Cap. 6, Part III, and Theorem 3, 5, 6. Part V. that the Periphery of the Circle whose Diameter is Unity, or 1, is 3,14159265 &c. (or for common Use 3,1416)

and that its Area is 0,78539816 &c. (or 0,7854 fere.)

2. Also, that the Peripheries of all Circles are in Proportion one to another as their Diameters are; and their Area's are in Proportion to the Squares of the Diameters. That is, as 1:3,1416:: the Diameter of any Circle: to its Periphery. And 1:0,7854:: the Square of the Diameter: to the Area.

Upon these two Proportions depend the Solutions of all the common or practical Questions about a Circle. [See Page 408, 409.]

PROBLEM IV.

The Diameter of any Circle being given in Inches, to find the Periphery.

RULE. { Multiply the given Diameter with 3,1416, and the Product will be the Periphery requir'd. [See Prob. 1. p. 408.]

Example. Suppose the Diameter of a Circle be 54,5 Inches, and it were requir'd to find its Periphery. Then 54,5×3,1416 = 171,21, &c. Inches is the Periphery requir'd. The Converse of this is easy, viz. by having the Periphery given, to find the Diameter. [See Prob. 3. Page 408.]

PROBLEM V.

The Diameter of any Circle being given (in Inches) to find its Area in Gallons.

RULE. Multiply the Square of the propos'd Diameter into 0,7854, and the Product will be the Area in Inches; [See Probl. 2, P. 408.] that Area being divided by 282, or 231, &c. the Quotient will be the Area required.

Example. Suppose the given Diameter be 54,5 Inches as above. First, $54.5 \times 54.5 = 2970.25$. And $2970.25 \times 0.7854 = 2332.83$ the Area in Inches:

Then 282 And 231 Or 268,8 2332,83 2332,83 10,0988 the Area in \(\begin{align*} \textit{Ale or Beer Gallons.} \\ Wine Gallons. \\ \textit{Corn Gallons.} \end{align*}

But these Area's in Gallons may be much easier found without knowing the Circle's Area in Inches, as above, by having the Square of the Diameter of that Circle whose Area is one Gallon; which may be thus found, by Theorem 6, Page 407.

0,785398: 1:: 282: 359,05 the Square of the Diameter of the Circle whose Area is 282 cubick Inches, viz. one Ale Gallon.

And from this Proportion will arise the following Divisors;

wiz. 0,785398 $\begin{cases} 282,000000 (359,05) \\ 231,000000 (294,12) \end{cases}$ will be a Divisor for $\begin{cases} A. G. \\ W. G. \\ C. G. \end{cases}$

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If the Square of the Diameter of any Circle be divided by any one of these constant or fixed Divisors, the Quotient will shew that Circle's Area in their respective Gallons. As for Instance, in the last Circle, whose Square of its Diameter is 2970,25.

Then 359,05 And 294,12 Or 342,24 $\left\{\begin{array}{c} 8,2725\\10,0988\\8,6788 \end{array}\right\}$ the Area in $\left\{\begin{array}{c} A. G.\\W. G.\\C. G. \end{array}\right\}$ as before.

Now these Divisors may be turn'd into Multiplicators by dividing Unity or 1, as in Page 435: Or rather by dividing the Area in Inches of that Circle whose Diameter is 1.

That is, 0,785398 by 282. Or by 231, &c.

Thus 282
And 231
Or 268,8
O,785398
O,0023399
O,002922
The Multiplicator for & Ale Gal.
Wine Gal.
Corn Gal.

These Multiplicators are the respective Area's of a Circle whose Diameter is 1; and therefore, if the Square of the Diameter of any Circle be multiply'd with any of these Numbers, the Product will be that Circle's Area in Gallons of the same Name:

Viz. 2970,25 \times 0,002785 = 8,2725 the Area in A. G. as above. And 2970,25 \times 0,003399 = 10,0988 the Area in W. Gal. &c.

Thus you see, that if the Diameter of any Circle be given in Inches, there are three several Ways of finding its Area in Gallons, and all equally true; but that which is perform'd by the constant Divisors is most generally practis'd.

PROBLEM VI.

The Transverse (or longest Diameter) and the Conjugate (or short-test Diameter) of any Elliptical Superficies being given, to find its Area in Gallons.

RULE. Sure Ale Gallons, or 294, 12 for Wine Gallons, &c. the Quotient will be the Area requir'd. [See Theorem 7, Page 412.

Example. Suppose the longest Diameter to be 73,5 Inches and the shortest Diameter to be 51,6 Inches; what will the Area be in Ale Gallons?

First $73,5\times51,6\equiv3792,6$. Then 359,05) 3792,6 (10,56 the Area in Ale Gallons. Or 294,12) 3792,6 (12,89 the Area in Wine Gallons, &c.

Note, The two last Problems are of a great Use in Gauging of Worts amongst Country Victuallers, who generally brew but short Lengths of Ale (perhaps between 20 and 60 Gallons at a Brewing) and cool their Worts in several small open Vessels or Tubs, whose Bases or Bottoms are either a Circle, or an Ellipsis, having their Sides but low, and are most commonly wider at the Top than at the Bottom.

Now a practical Way of computing the Quantity of Worts, that are at any Time in one of those open Tubs, is briefly thus: When the Tub is dry, find the true Area of its Bottom according to its Figure (as above) and either mark that Area on the Outsfide of the Tub (which was the Way I generally us'd to order, because the Victuallers did often lend their cooling Tubs one to another) or else number the Tub, and enter its Area (and its Number) into the Stock-book; then, when any of those Tubs hath Worts in it, take the Diameter of the Surface or Top of the Worts, and find that Area, adding it and the bottom Area together. If either the half Sum of those two Area's be multiply'd with the Depth of the Worts (taken as near the Middle of the Tub as you well can) or, if the Sum of those two Area's be multiply'd with half the Depth (so taken) the Product will shew the Quantity of those Worts very near the Truth.

PROBLEM VII.

The Diameter of any Circle, and the versed Sine, viz. (the Height of any Segment, being given, to find the Area of that Segment in Gallons.

In the 410th and 412th Pages you have two Ways (and their Examples) of finding the Area of any Segment of a Circle in Inches; then if that Area in Inches be divided by 282, or 231 &c.) the Quotient will be its Area in Gallons. But because the Area of any such Segment may be readily found in Gallons (without finding its Area in Inches) by help of a Table of Segments, whose Construction is laid down in the Problem, Page 411, &c. I have here inserted a Compendium of such a Table, which will serve very well for common Practice, not only to find the Area of any Segment of a Circle in Gallons, but also to find the Number of Gallons that are either drawn out, or remaining in any Cylindrick Vessel lying along; or of any close Cask (being first reduced to a Cylinder) its Axis lying parallel to the Horizon, usually call'd the Ullage of a Cask; as shall be shew'd farther on.

A Table

A Table of the Segments of a Circle whose Area is Unity or 1, the Diameter being divided by parallel Chord-Lines into 100 equal Parts.

-					-		 _	-
v.s.	Segment.	V.	S. Segment.	- 1	V.S.	Segment.	V.S.	Segment.
1 2 3 4 5	0,0017 0,0048 0,0087 0,0134 0,0187	2 2 2	6,2066 7,0,2178 8,0,2292 9,0,2407 0,2523		51 52 53 54 55	0,5255	76 77 78 79 80	0,8155 0,8262 0,8369 0,8474 0,8576
6 7 8 9 10	0,0,08 0,0375 0,0446	3 3 3	0,2640 2 0,2759 3 0,2878 4 0,2998 5 0,3119		56 57 58 59 60	0,5888 0,6014 0,6140	81 82 83 84 85	0,8677 0,8776 0,8873 0,8968 0,9059
11 12 13 14	0,0685	3 3 3	6 0,3241 7 0,3364 8 0,3486 9 0,3611 0,3735		61 62 63 64 65	0,6514	86 87 88 89 90	0,9149 0,9236 0,9320 0,9402 0,9480
17		4 4	0,3860 2 0,3986 3 0,4112 4 0,4238 5 0,4365		66 67 68 69 70	0,7122	91 92 93 94 95	0,9554 0,9625 0,9692 0,9755 0,9813
21 22 23 24 25	0,1738	. 4	0,4491 0,4618 0,4745 0,4873		71 72 73 74 75		96 67 98 99	0,9866 0,9913 0,9952 0,9983 1,0000

The Use of this Table of Segments depends upon the following Proportion,

viz. Segment of the propos'd Circle: is to 100 (the Segment of the propos'd Circle: to a versed Sine in the Table.

Then, if the tabular Segment, which stands against that versed Sine, be multiply'd into the Circle's Area (either in Inches or Gallons) the Product will be the Area of the Segment requir'd [of the same Name] viz. If the Circle's Area be Inches, the Segment will be Inches; if Gallons, the Segment will be Gallons.

Lll

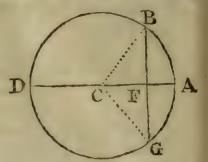
Example.

Example. Let the Diameter of the given Circle be DA = 62,5

Inches, and the Height of the Segment fought be FA=20 Inches; What will

its Area be in Ale Gallons?

First, the Area of the whole Circle will be 10,8793 Ale Gallons (by Problem 5.) and the Proportion will stand thus, 62,5:100::20:32 the verfed Sine of the Table whose Segment is 0,2759. Then, 10,8720×0,2759=3,



co16 Ale Gallons, being the Area of the Segment BAGF, as was requir'd. The like may be done for Wine Gallons, Corn

Gallons, or Inches.

And, upon Occasion, the like Segments of any Ellipsis may be easily found. See the *Proportions* in the Corollaries to the 7th and 8th Theorems, Page 412, &c. to which I here, for Brevity's Sake, refer the Reader.

Sect. 3. To compute the Contents of fuch Vessels (viz. Tuns, &c.)

as are in the Form of the following Solids.

Note, Before the young Gauger proceeds to these Computations, he should be well acquainted with such Solids as are defin'd in P. 402 and 403, and then he may easily understand what Sort of Figures are meant in the following Problems, without the Repetition of many Words.

PROBLEM VIII.

To find the Content of any Prism whose Sides are Parallelograms what Form soever its Base is of.

That is, to compute the Content (in Gallons) of any Tun, &c. whose Sides are Parallelograms which stand upright, or at Right

Angles with its Bottom.

First, find its solid Content in Inches, by Theorem 9, Page 414; then divide that Content by 282, or 231, or by 268,8; the Quotient will shew the Content in their respective Gallons, viz. in Ale, Wine, or Corn Gallons.

Or else multiply the Content in Inches with 0,003546, or 0,004329, &c. [See the Multiplicators, Page 435] those Products

will be the Content in their respective Gallons.

Or otherwise thus:

Find the true Area of the Tun's Base or Bottom, as directed in Sect. 1, P. 435; that Area being multiply'd with the Tun's Height (viz. Depth within) will produce the Content in Gallons, as before.

1 take

I take the Work of this Problem to be so very easy, that it needs no Example.

PROBLEM IX.

To find the Content of any Pyramid (in Galions) whose Base is bounded with Right Lines.

Every Pyramid is one Third-part of its circumscribing Prism, by Theorem 10, Page 415. Therefore, if the Area of the Base of any Pyramid, in Gallons, be multiply'd in one Third of its perpendicular Height; or if one Third of that Area be multiply'd with the whole Height, either of those Products will be the Content of the Pyramid in Gallons, &c. But the Content of any square Pyramid may be easily sound in Gallons by this Rule:

Square the Side of its Base, and multiply that Square with the perpendicular Height; then divide that Product by 846 = 282 × 3 for Ale Gallons, or by 693 = 231 × 3 for Wine Gallons, or by 806,4 = 268,8 × 3 for Corn Gallons, the Quotient will be the Content requir'd.

Or, if you multiply the said Product with 0,001182 for AG. or with 0,001443 for WG. or, lastly, with 0,001241 for C. G. the Result will be the Content required, as before.

PROBLEM X.

To find the Content (in Gallons) of the Frustum of any square Pyramid, cut off by a Plain parallel to its Base.

First, either by Theorem 15, Page 419, or Theorem 16, P. 420, find the propos'd Frustum's Solidity in Cubick Inches; then divide that Content in Cubick Inches by 282 or 231, &c. and the Quotient will be the Content of the Frustum in their respective Gallons.

But, from the foresaid Theorem 15, there may be easily deduced the following general Rule for finding the Content of the like Frustum of any Pyramid, what Form soever its Bases are of (supposing them to be parallel) whether they are alike or unlike.

First, find the Area of each Base, (viz. the top and bottom Area's of the propos'd Frustum;) then find a Geometrical Mean between those two Area's (by Lemma 1, Page 83;) the Sum of those two Area's and their Mean, being multiply'd into one Third of the Frustum's Height, will produce the Content required.

L112

Example.

Example. Suppose a Tun in the Form of the lower Frustum of a Pyramid, whose Bases are Equilateral Triangles: Let the Side of the Top be 42 Inches, the Side of the Bottom be 63,4 Inches, and its Height [viz. Depth] be 33 Inches; What will the Content of that Tun be in Ale Gallons?

First, find the Area of that Base in Inches, by Probl. 7, P. 343; then find what those Area's are in Ale Gallons, by Probl. 3, P. 436. Multiply those two Area's together and the square Root of their

Product will be the mean Area, &c. as in this Example:

Then $12.9 \times \frac{23}{3} = 141.9$. Or $\frac{12.9}{3} \times 33 = 141.9$ the Content required.

PROBLEM XI.

To find the Content of any right Cylinder in Gallons.

That is, to compute the Content of any round Tun, &c. whose Diameters at Top and Bottom are equal, and at Right Angles with its Sides.

The Content of such a Tun may be found by Theorem 11,

Page 415; or otherwise by the following Rule.

RULE. Multiply the Square of the Diameter into the Height, and divide the Product by 359,05 (or multiply with 0,002785) &c. as in Page 439, that Quotient (or Product) will be the Content required.

Exam. Suppose the Diameter be 42,5, and the Height 31,5 Inches. First 42.5×42,5 = 1806,25 And 1806,25×31,5=56896,875. Then 359,05) 56896,875 (158,46 the Content in Ale Gal. &c.

PROBLEM XII.

To find the Content of any Cone or round Pyramid in Gallons.

Because every Cone is one Third of its circumscribing Cylinder, [See Theorem 13, Page 416] therefore its Content may be truly found by the following Rule.

Multiply the Square of the Diameter of its Base into RULE. the perpendicular Height, then divide their Product by 1077, 15 = 359,05 × 3 for Ale Gallons, or by 882,36 = 294,12×3 for Wine Gallons, &c. and the Quotient will be the Content required.

Or

Or if the faid Product be multiply'd with 0,000928 = 0,002785,

or with 0,001133= 0,0034, those Products will be the Content

in their respective Gallons.

Example. Suppose the Diameter of the Base be 42,5, and the perpendicular Height be 31,5 Inches, what will the Content be in Ale Gallons? First $42,5 \times 42,5 = 1806,25$. And $1806,25 \times 31,5 = 56896,875$ Then 1077,15) 56896,875 (52,82. Or 56896,25×0,000928 = 52,82 the Content in Ale Gallons. And so on for Wine or Corn Gallons.

PROBLEM XIII.

To find the Content of the lower Frustum of any Cone in Gallons.

That is, to compute the Content of any round Tun, &c. whose

Diameters at Top and Bottom are parallel, but unequal.

The Content of fuch a Tun may be found by the Rule at Problem 10; but from Theorem 16, Page 420, 'twill be easy to de-

duce this following Rule.

To the triple Product of the Top and bottom Diameters, add the Square of their Difference; multiply that Sum RULE. { into the Height (or Depth): then divide the last Product by 1077, 15 for Ale Gallons, or by 882, 36 for Wine Gallons; the Quotient will be the Content requir'd.

Example. Suppose the Diameter at the Top to be 52,4 Inches, the Diameter at the Bottom 45,6, and the Height 30 Inches. First, $5^2,4\times44,6=2337,04$; and $2337,04\times3=7011,12$ Add Alfo, $5^2,4-44,6=7,8$; and $7,8\times7,8=60,84$ Add The Height 30 X 7071,96=212158,8.

Then 1077,15) 212158,8 (196,96) the Content in Ale Gallons. Or 212158,8 × 0,000928 = 196,96}

And so on for either Wine or Corn Gallons, as Occasion requires. But if the Tun (or Vessel) be not truly circular, that is, if either its Top or Bottom (or both of 'em) be Elliptical, whether they are alike or unlike, it matters not, the Content of such a Tun may be truly found by the general Rule at Problem 10.

PROBLEM XIV.

The Axis or Diameter of any Sphere or Globe being given in Inches to find its Content in Gallons.

Every Sphere is two Thirds of its circumseribing Cylinder, by Theor, 18, Page 423; from whence and Theor. 20, Page 426, 'tis proyed,

proved, that if the Cube of the Axis of any Sphere (taken in Inches) be multiply'd into 0,5236, the Product will be the Content of that Sphere in Inches. Consequently, if that Content be divided by 282, or by 231, &c. the Quotient will be the Content in Gallons.

But those two Works of multiplying with 0,5236, and then dividing by 282, or by 231, &c. may be contracted into one.

Thus 232 And 231 \ 0,5236 \ \{ 0,001856 \ 0,002266 \} \ \text{will be a Multiplicator for } \{ \begin{align*} A. G. \ W. G. \ \ Or 0,5236 \ \{ 282 \ 231 \} \{ 441,17 \} \text{will be a Divisor for } \{ \begin{align*} Ale Gallons. \ Wine Gallons. \ \ From hence arises this following Rule. \end{align*}

-If the Cube of the Axis of any Sphere be divided by RULE. 538,57; or multiply'd with 0,001856: or divided by 441,17; or else multiply'd with 0,002266; the Quotient, or Product, will be the Sphere's Content in their re-

Example. Suppose the Axis or Diameter of a Sphere or Globe

be 2 Inches, how many Ale Gallons may it hold?

Here 22×22×22 = 10648; and 538,57) 10648 (19,76 A.G. Or 10648 x 0,001856 = 19,76 Ale Gal. the Content required. And fo for either Wine or Corn Gallons, as Occasion requires.

PROBLEM XV.

To find the Content of a Segment of a Sphere in Gallons.

In the Scholium, P. 424, there are two Theorems for resolving

this Problem according to the Data.

1. If the Diameter of the Segment's Base and its Height are given, the Content may be found by the first of those Theorems, which gives this Rule:

RULE 1. To the Triple Square of half the Diameter add the Square of the Height; then multiply that Sum into the Height, and divide the Product by 538,57 for AG, or by 441,17 for WG, &c. as above.

2. But if the Axis of the Sphere and the Height of the Segment are given, the Content may be found by the Second of those

Theorems.

From the triple Product of the Axis into the Height, fubtract twice the Square of the Height; then multiply the Remainder into the Height, and divide that Product by 538,57, &c. as in the last Problem.

Either of these Rules will produce the Content of the Segment in Gallons.

Example. Suppose the Diameter of the Segment's Base be 28 Inches, and its Height be 8 Inches, what may it contain in Ale Gallons?

First 2) 28 (14. Then (by Rule 1.) $14 \times 14 \times 3 = 588$. And $6 \times 6 = 36$. Next 588 + 36 = 624. Again $624 \times 6 = 3744$. Lastly, 538,57) 3744 (6,95 the Content required.

Note, This Problem may be of Use in Gauging the Crowns of Brewers Coppers, &c.

Sect. 4. The Practical Method of Gauging any fix'd Tun or Copper, and making a Table to shew what it will hold at every Inch deep, usually call'd Inching of a Tun, &c.

First, you must know, that most (if not all) Brewers Tuns are so fix'd as to lean a little for Conveniency of cleansing their Drink, which is usually call'd the Drip or Fall of the Tun. Now this Drip or Fall of any Tun is the Hoof of fuch a Solid as that Tun is suppos'd to represent, and under that Consideration it may be found, as in Theor. 16, P. 420: But the practical (and indeed the best) Way is, to measure into the Tun (when 'tis dry) so much Liquor as will just cover its Bottom; for by that means you do not only find the true Fall, but also a true horizontal or level Plain over the Bottom of the Tun; from which if the Depth of the Tun (viz. the nearest Distance from the Top of the Tun to the Surface of the Liquor) be fet off upon every one of its Sides, you will then have a true parallel Plain at the Top of the Tun to that of the Liquor. Then, if the Sides of the Tun are streight from the Top to the Bottom, take as many Dimensions in the aforesaid two Plains as are needful to find the true Area of each; and by those two Area's and the forefaid Depth find fo much of the Tun's Content (by the general Rule at Problem X.) as is betwixt those two Plains.

Next, to inch that Tun, divide the Difference between the Top and Bottom Area's by the aforesaid Depth, and the Quotient will be an Addend or fixed Number; which being added to the lesser Area, the Sum will be the Area of the next Inch; and, being added to that Area, their Sum will be the Area of the third Inch; and so on from Inch to Inch, until the Area of every single Inch be found; the Sum of those Area's (if the Work be true) will amount (or be equal) to the Content sound, as above. And if

the Tun's Drip or Fall be added to the Sum of all those Area's, that Sum will be the whole or full Content of that Tun.

Now, from hence it must needs be easy to conceive, that if 1, 2, 3, or any Number of those Area's accounted from the Bottom, be added to the Fall, that Sum will shew the Quantity of Liquor or Drink that is in the Tun, to such a Number of wet Inches from the Bottom as there were Area's added together. Or, if the Sum of any Number of those Area's (being accounted from the Top) be subtracted from the Tun's whole Content, the Remainder will shew what Quantity of Liquor or Drink is in the Tun, when there is such a Number of dry Inches from the Top as there were Area's subtracted.

This being well confider'd, it will be easy to make a Table either to every wet or dry Inch of any regular Tun (viz. whose Sides are streight from Top to Bottom) what Form soever its Bases are of, and whether it stand upon the greater or lesser Base.

But if the Sides of the Tun are irregular (viz. not streight from its Top to the Bottom) then the best and easiest Way will be to divide or part the Tun into several Frustums, each of ten Inches deep; and finding the Content of every single Frustum, by taking the Diameters in the Middle of every one of those ten Inches (that is, the first Diameter at 5 Inches from the Top; the second Diameter at 15 Inches from the Top, &c.) and multiplying their respective Area's with 10, (which is done by only removing the separating Comma's one Place forward to the right Hand) if the Sum of all those Frustums be added to the Fall, (as before); that Sum will be the whole Content of the Tun.

Note, If you take the Height of the foresaid ten Inch Frustums in the Side of the Tun, you must allow for the Difference between the slant Height and the Perpendicular Height in every Frustum.

Lastly, Is from the whole Content of the Tun you subtract the mean Area of the first Frustum ten Times, and from the Remainder subtract the mean Area of the second Frustum ten Times, and from the last Remainder subtract the mean Area of the third Frustum, &c. until there remain nothing but the Fall or Hoof of the Tun, you will then by that Means have a Table that will shew what Quantity of Drink is in the Tun to any Number of dry Inches.

And this is also the Method of Gauging and Inching Brewers Coppers, viz. by first measuring into the Copper so much Liquor as will just cover its Crown, and then dividing its perpendicular Height into Frustums, and its Sides into sour equal Parts; that so cross Diameters may be taken in the Middle of each Frustum:

But

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but if the Copper be much wider at the Top than at the Bottom, and its Sides spheroidal or arching, as generally all large Coppers are; then, instead of taking those mean Diameters in the Middle of every ten Inches, as above, you must take them in the Middle of

every fix Inches, and proceed on as before.

Now the Quantity of Liquor, that would cover the Crown of the Copper, may be found without measuring it, as above. In order to that, I do suppose the Crown to be the Segment of a Sphere, and the lower Part of the Copper wherein the Crown ariseth, to be the Frustum of a parabolick Conoid; then, if the Diameter at the Top of the Crown, and its perpendicular Height are given, the Quantity of Liquor may be found by this following Rule:

RULE. From the Area of the Plain at the Top of the Crown fubtract $\frac{1}{3}$ of the Area of the Crown's Height; the Remainder, being multiply'd into half the Height of the Crown, will produce the Quantity or Number of Gallons that will cover the Crown.

This Rule is deduced from Scholium, Page 424, and Theorem. 15. Page 430.

Sect. 5. To compute the Content of any close Cask in Gallons, viz. of any Butt, Pipe, Hogshead, Barrel, &c.

In order to perform this difficult Part of Gauging, the three following Dimensions of the proposed Cask must be truly taken in Inches, and Decimal Parts of an Inch.

Viz. The Bulge or Bung Diameter within the Cask.

Either of the Head Diameters supposing them both equal.

And the Length of the Cask within.

Note, In taking of these Dimensions, it must be carefully observed,

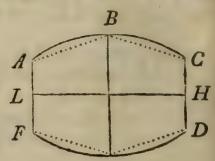
- 1. That the Bung-hole be in the Middle of the Cask; also that the Bung-staff and the Staff over-against the Bung-hole are both regular or even within.
- 2. That the Heads of the Cask are equal and truly circular; if so, the Distance between the Inside of the Chine to the Outside of its opposite Staff will be the Head Diameter within the Cask, very near.
- 3. With a fliding pair of Calipers (made on purpose for that Use) take the shortest Distance at Length between the Outsides of the two Heads; (supposing them even) from that Length subtract 1 ½ Inch (more, or less, according to the Largeness of the M m m

Cask) for the Thickness of the two Heads, the Remainder will be the Length of the Cask within.

Now by these Dimensions, one would suppose the Content of the Cask were perfectly limited; but it will be easy to perceive, by the following Figure, that the Diameters (abovefaid) and the Length of one Cask may be equal to those of another, and yet one of those Casks may contain or hold several Gallons more than the other.

As for Instance, suppose the annex'd Figure ABCDGF, to

represent a Cask; then it is plain, that, if the outward and curved Lines ABC and F G D are the Bounds or Staves of the Cask, it must needs hold more than if the inner streight or prick'd Lines were its Bounds or Staves; and yet the Bung Diameter BG, Head Diameter CD and AF, and the Length LH, are the same in both those Casks.



Whence it plainly appears, that no one certain or general Rule can be prescrib'd to find the true Content of all Sorts of Casks, and therefore Gaugers do usually suppose every Cask to be in Form of fome one of these following Solids.

Viz.

I. The middle Zone or Frustum of a Spheroid.

II. The middle Zone or Frustum of a Parabolick Spindle.

III. The lower Frustums of two equal Parabolick Conoids.

IV. The lower Frustums of two equal Cones.

Now the Way of Gueffing at the Cask's Form, and computing its Content, according to its suppos'd Form, I shall here shew in their Order.

I. If the Staves of the Cask are very much curved or arching (as the outward Lines of the last Figure) then the Cask is suppos'd to be in the Form of the middle Zone or Frustum of a Spheroid, whose Content may be computed, by Theorem 22. Page 427, which gives these two Rules.

To twice the Square of the Bung Diameter add the Square of the Head Diameter; multiply that Sum into the Length, and divide the Product by 1077,15.

Viz. 3, 8197×282 for Ale Gallons; and by 882,36.

Viz. 3, 8197×231 for Wine Gallons. Or thus,

RULE

RULE 2. To twice the Area of the Bung Circle, add the Area of the Head Circle; multiply their Sum into one Third of the Length, and the Product will be the Content in their respective Gallons.

Example 1. Suppose a Cask in the Form of the middle Zone of a Spheroid, whose Bung Diameter is 31,5, Head Diameter 24,5, and its Length 42 Inches.

First 31,5 \times 31,5 \times 2=1984,5. And 24,5 \times 24,5=600,25 Again1984,5+600,25=2584,75. And 2584,75 \times 42=108559,5 Then 1077,15)108559,5(100,78 the Content in Ale Gallons. And 882,35) 108559,5 (123,03 the Content in Wine Gallons.

Or thus, by the Second Rule.

Bung Diameter 31,5 twice its Circle's Area is 5,5270
Head Diameter 24,5 its Circle's Area is 1,6718
The Length 42 divided by 3 is 14. 7,1988 = their Sum.

Then 7,1988×14=100,78, the Content in A. Gallons as before. And so the Content in Wine Gallons may be found.

II. If the Staves of the Cask are not quite so much curved or arching, as was supposed before, the Cask is then taken for the middle Frustum of a parabolick Spindle, and its Content is computed, as by Theorem 27. Page 432. Which gives this Rule.

RULE. To twice the Square of the Bung Diameter add the Square of the Head Diameter; from their Difference fubtract four Tenths of the Square of the D fference of the Diameters; multiply the Remainder into the Length, and divide the Product by 1077, 15, &c. as above.

Example 2. Suppose the Dimensions the same as before. Then $31.5 \times 31.5 \times 2: + 24.5 \times 24.5 = 2584.75$. And 31.5 = 24.5 = 7. Again $7 \times 7 \times 0.4 = 19.6$. And $2584.75 = 19.6 \times 42 = 10.77.36.3$. Then 10.77.15) 10.77.36.3 (100.01 the Cont. in A. G. &c. for W. G.

III. When the Staves of the Cask are but very little curved or arching, then it's suppos'd to be in the Form of the Frustums of two equal parabolick Conoids, abutting or joining together upon one common Base at the Bulge, and the Content may be found by Theorem 25. Page 430. which gives these Rules.

To the Square of the Bung Diameter add the Square of the Head Diameter; multiply their Sum into the Length, and divide the Product by 718,08 (viz. 2,5464×282) for Ale Gallons: or by 588,22 (viz. 2,5464×231) for Wine Gallons. Or thus,

To the Area of the Bung Circle add the Area of the Head Circle; multiply the Sum into half the Length, and the Product will be the Content required.

Example. 3. With the same Dimensions as before. Then $315\times31.5 + 24.5\times24.5 = 1592.5$. And $1592.5\times42 = 66885$ And 718.08) 66885 (93.01 the Content in Ale Gallons. Or <math>588.22) 66885 (113.7 the Content in Wine Gallons.

IV. If the Staves of the Cask are streight from the Bulge to the Head, as the inner prick'd Lines in the last Figure (if such a Cask can be made) it is then taken for the lower Frustums of two equal Cones, abutting or joining together upon one common Base at the Bulge. And its Content may be computed as at Problem 13. Page 445. or by Theorem 15. Page 419. Thus,

RULE. To the Sum of the Squares of the Head and Bung Diameters add their Product; then multiply that Sum into the Length, and divide the last Product by 1077,15. Or by 882,36. The Quotient will be the Content, &c.

Example 4. With the same Dimensions as before.

First $31,5\times31,5+24,5\times24,5+31,5\times24,5=2364,25$ And $2364,25\times42=99298,5$. Then 1077,15) 99298,5 (92,18 the Content in Ale Gallons, and so on for Wine Gallons.

Thus you have the Methods of computing the true Contents of the four Solids, in whose Form all Casks are supposed to be. And by the Examples it appears, that sour such Casks as have their Dimensions all equal, and the H. 100,01 contents will be as in the Margin.

Thus you have the Methods of computing the true Contents of the four Solids, in whose Form all Casks are supposed to be. And by the Examples is 100,78 | Differ. 100,

From the Disproportion or Inequality of these Differences it will be easy to conceive, that there may be several Casks whose Contents cannot be truly found, according to the aforesaid suppos'd Forms; and therefore, in order to rectify the said Inequalities, some Authors (that have written upon this Subject) have laid down Theorems of their own Invention; and yet call'd them

by these Names) others have propos'd Tables for the same Pur-But since it is so, that we can only guess at the Truth, the plainest and easiest Way is to be preferr'd in Practice; and that is, by finding fuch a mean Diameter as will reduce the propos'd Cask to a Cylinder.

Multiply the Difference between the Head and Bung Diameters, with 0,7. or with 0,65. or with 0,6. or with o,55. according as the Staves of the Cask are more or less arching; add the Product to the Head Diameter, and the Sum will be the mean Diameter required. find the Content, as at Prob. 11. Page 444.

Example. With the same Dimensions as before. Then the Bung Diameter less the Head Diam. is 31,5-24,5 = 7.

AG. MD. $\begin{array}{l}
7\times0,7 = 29,40 \text{ its } Area \ 2,4073\times42 = 101,10 \\
7\times0,65 = 29,05 - 2,3504\times42 = 98,71 \\
7\times0,6 = 28,70 - 2,2941\times42 = 96,35 \\
7\times0,55 = 28,35 - 2,2385\times42 = 94,02 \\
2,32
\end{array}$

From these it may be observ'd, that the Difference between each Cask's Content is regular, and very near equal; which plainly shews, that there is not so much Room left for Error this Way of

computing their Contents, as was by the aforesaid Forms.

Now the first of these four (viz. with 0,7) is very commonly used among Gaugers for all Sorts of Casks; but I did never gauge any Cask that would contain quite so much as that Rule did make it; and the Reason doth appear very plain from Theorem 22. Page 427. being compar'd with Theorem 19. Page 426. and the last Figure; viz. that no (Cask being regularly made) can hold more than the middle Fustrum of a Spheroid. But I always found by Experience, that if the fecond and third of thefe Rules (viz. with 0,65 and 0,6) were duly apply'd, they would answer very near the Truth amongst the common Sort of Casks; and the fourth R de (viz. with 0,55) will come pretty near the Truth in computing the Contents of Casks, whose Staves are almost streight betwixt the Head and Bung, viz. such as Wine Pipes, &c.

Sect. 6. To find what Quantity of Liquor is either drawn forth, or remaining in any spheroidical Cask, usually call'd the Ullage

of a Cask; hath two Cases.

Case 1. To find what Quantity of Liquor is in the Cask, when its Axis is perpendicular to the Horizon, viz. when it stands upright upon one of its Heads.

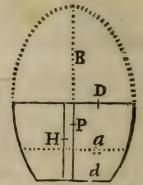
In order to perform this the easiest Way, it will be convenient to know how to calculate the Area of any Circle betwixt the Bung and Head, whose Distance from the Bung or middle of the Cask is given. Now that may be done by this Proportion.

As the Square of half the Length of the Cask: is to the Difference between the Bung and Head Area's:: so is the Square of any Circle's Distance from the Bung: to the Difference between the Bung Area, and the Area of the Circle, viz. the Area of the Liquor's Surface.

Demonstration. { H=Half the Length of the Cask D=Half the Bung Diameter. d=Half the Head Diameter.

or under half the Content of the Cask.

And $\begin{cases} P = \text{the Distance of any Circle from} \\ \text{the Bung} \\ a = \text{Half the Diameter of that Circle.} \end{cases}$



Then according to the common Property of the Ellipsis, Page 368, it will be,

BB: DD::BB—HH: dd. And BB: DD:: BB—PP: aa.

Ergo
$$\left\{ \frac{DDHH}{DD-dd} = BB. \right\}$$
 And $\left\{ \frac{DDPP}{DD-aa} = BB. \right\}$

Confequently, $\left\{ \frac{DDHH}{DD-dd} = \frac{DD-aa}{DDPP} \right\}$

This Æquation, being brought out of the Fractions, will become DDHH-a a HH=DDPPddPP, which gives this Analogy HH: DD -dd:: PP: DD -aa. Then DD -aa, being subtracted from DD, will leave a a. But Circles Area's are in Proportion to the Squares of their Diameters, by Theorem 6. Page 407. Therefore, &c. Q. E. D. Then, from the Bung Area subtract one third Part of the aforesaid Difference, viz. between the Bung Area and the Area of the Liquor's Surface; multiply the Remainder with the Liquor's Distance from the Bung,

Example. Let us suppose a Cask of the same Dimensions with that in the first Example, Page 451, and let it be required to find what Quantity of Liquor is in it (of Ale Measure) when there is but 9 Inches wet. Here half the Length of the Cask is 21 Inches,

and the Product will shew what Quantity of Liquor is either above

Inches, whose Square is 441, and the Liquor's Distance from the Bung is 21 — 9 = 12. Its Square is 144. The Difference between the Bung and Head Area's is 1,0917 (= 2,7635—1,6718.) Then 441: 1,0917:: 144: 0,3564.

And 2,7635 - 0,3564 = 2,4071 the Area of the Liquor's

Surface.

Again 3) 0,3564 (0,1188. And 2,7635 — 0,1188 = 2,6447 Then 2,6447 \times 12 = 31,7364, what the Cask wants of being half full. Consequently 50,39 — 31,73 = 18,66 will be the Quantity of Liquor in the Cask at 9 Inches wet in Ale Gallons.

And if the Cask had wanted but 9 Inches of being full; then 50,39 + 31,73 = 82,12 would have been the Quantity of Liquor

in the Cask.

Note, because the two first Terms (viz. 441 and 1,0917) in the Proportion are fix'd, viz. continue the same for any Distance, 'twill be very easy to calculate the Area's of all the Circles betwixt the Bung and Head to every Inch, and by that Means to make a Table that will shew what Quantity of Liquor is either drawn out or remaining in the Cask at any Depth.

Case 2. To find what Quantity of Liquor is in any Cask, when its Axis is parallel to the Horizon, viz. when it lies along.

There are Variety of Tables to be found in Books of Gauging for this Purpose; but I always observed, that the following Method of computing the Ullage, by a Table of the Segments of a Circle, came very near the Truth in all Sorts of Casks, which is thus perform'd:

1. By the Bung and Head Diameters, find such a mean Diameter as you judge will reduce the propos'd Cask to a Cylinder, by the Method laid down in Page 453. And then find its sull Con-

tent, as in those Examples.

2. From the Bung Diameter subtract the mean Diameter and

half the Difference, (viz. divide it by 2.)

3. From the wet Inches of the propos'd Ullage, subtract the faid half Difference, and call it x; then observe this Proportion.

Viz. { As the mean Diameter: is to 100 (the Diameter of the tabular Circle):: fo is the last Difference (viz. x): to a versed Sine in the Table. (Page 441.)

Then if the tabular Segment, which stands against that versed Sine, be multiply'd into the Content of the Cask, the Product will shew the Ullage, viz. what Quantity of Liquor is either in the Cask, or drawn forth.

Example 1. Let the Cask be that of the second Sort, in Page 453. viz. whose Bung Diameter is 31,5 Inches, mean Diameter 29,05, and the Content 98,71 Ale Gallons; and suppose there were 10,5 Inches wet in it, it is required to find the wet and dry Gallons?

Here 31,5—29,05=2,45; its half is 1,12. And 10,5—1,22=9,28 Then 29,05: 100:: 9,28: 0,319 \equiv V. Sine; its Segm. is 0,2748 And 98,71 \times 0,2748=27,12 the Number of wet Gallons.

Again 31,5—10,5=21 the dry Inches; and 21—1,22=19,78 Then 29,05: 100:: 19,78: 0,68; its Segment is 0,7241 And 98,71×0,7241=71,48 the Number of dry Gallons. Proof 71,48+27,12=98,6 the Contents of the Cask very near; which plainly shews the Truth of this Method.

Thus far may suffice concerning Gauging of Backs or Coolers, Tuns, Coppers, and Casks, &c. To which I shall only add, that as the Contents of all Brewers Utenfils are to be computed by the Ale Gallons, so the Contents of all Distillers Utenfils (viz. all their Wash-Backs, Stills, and Casks, &c.) must be computed by the Wine Gallon.

And in gauging of Malt (upon which there is now a Duty of four Shillings per Bushel) you must observe, That a Corn or Malt Bushel doth contain 2150,42 cubick Inches; (See Page 42.) and therefore in gauging of Malt-Cisterns, or other Vessels, 2150,42 will be a constant or fixed Divisor for finding the Area's of right-lin'd Figures in Bushels at one Inch deep, and 2738 will be a constant or fix'd Divisor for finding the Area's of circular Figures.

I have omitted the Business of gauging Mash-Tuns, and taking an Account of the Goods or Grains, in order to estimate what Quantity of Worts were produc'd from them, &c. because I could never find (by all my Observations) any Certainty therein; nor is it possible there should be any, by Reason of the great Disference that is in Malt (and its Grinding too) for the best Malt (well ground) will yield or produce the most Worts, and least Grains; on the contrary, bad Malt (being ill ground) yields the

least Worts and most Grains.

SUPPLEMENT

Not in any of the former Editions of this

B O O K.

Containing the

HISTORY

OF

LOGARITHMS,

WITH

Several easy Methods of Constructing the Tables of the Logarithms and Sines, &c. Also the Demonstration of the Axioms and Doctrine of Plane

TRIGONOMETRY.

Extracted from the

Philosophical TRANSACTIONS and the WORKS of Dr. KEIL, RONAYNE, WARD, &c.

Cuncta Trigonus habet, satagit quæ docta Mathesis, Ille aperit clausum quicquid Olympus habet.

PREFACE.

HE Mathematicks formerly received considerable

Advantages first by the Line of the line o Advantages; first, by the Introduction of the Indian Characters, and afterwards by the Invention of Decimal Fractions; yet has it since reaped at least as much from the Invention of Logarithms, as from both the other two. The Use of these, every one knows, is of the greatest Extent, and runs through all Parts of Mathematicks. By their Means it is that Numbers almost infinite, and such as are otherwise impracticable, are managed with Ease and Expedition. By their Assistance the Mariner steers his Vessel, the Geometrician investigates the Nature of the higher Curves, the Astronomer determines the Places of the Stars, the Philosopher accounts for other Phænomena of Nature; and lastly, the Usurer computes the Interest of his Money.

The Subject of the following Treatife has been cultivated by Mathematicians of the first Rank; some of whom, taking in the whole Dostrine, have indeed wrote learnedly, but scarcely intelligible to any but Masters. Others, again, accommodating themselves to the Apprehension of Novices, have selected out some of the most easy and obvious Properties of Logarithms, but have left their Nature and more intimate Properties untouch'd. Design therefore, in the following Tract, is to supply what seemed still wanting, viz. to discover and explain the Doctrine of Logarithms, to those who are not yet

The wonderful Invention of Logarithms we owe to the Lord Neper, who was the first that constructed and published a Canon thereof, at Edinburgh, in the Year 1614. This was very graciously received by all Mathematicians, who were immediately sensible of the extreme Usefulness thereof. And tho' it is usual to have various Nations contending for the Glory of any notable Invention, yet Neper is universally allow'd the Inventor of Logarithms, and enjoys the whole Honour thereof without any Rival.

The fame Lord Neper afterwards invented another and more commodious Form of Logarithms, which he afterwards communicated to Mr. Henry Briggs, Professor of Geometry at Oxford, who was hereby introduced as a Sharer in the completing thereof: But, the Lord Neper dying, the whole Business remaining was devolved upon Mr. Briggs, who, with prodigious Application, and an uncommon Dexterity, compass da Logarithmic Canon, agreeable to that new Form for the first twenty Chiliads of Numbers (or form 1 to 2000) and for eleven other Chiliads, viz. from 90000 to 101000. For all which Numbers he calculated the Logarithms to fourteen Places of Figures. This Canon was published at London in the Year 1624.

Adrian Vlacq published again this Canon at Goudæ in Holland in the Year 1628, with the intermediate Chiliads before omitted, filled up according to Briggs's Prescriptions; but these Tables are not so useful as Briggs's, because the Logarithms are continued but to 10 Places

of Figures.

Mr. Briggs also has calculated the Logarithms of the Sines and Tangents of every Degree, and the hundredth Parts of Degrees to 15 Places of Figures, and has subjoined to them the natural Sines, Tangents, and Secants,

to 15 Places of Figures. The Logarithms of the Sines and Tangents are called Artificial Sines and Tangents, but the Sines and Tangents themselves are called natural. These Tables, together with their Construction and Use, were published after Briggs's Death, at London, in the Year 1633, by Henry Gellibrand, and by him called Trigonometria Britannica.

Since then, there have been published, in several Places, compendious Tables, wherein the Sines and Tangents, and their Logarithms, consist of but seven Places of Figures, and wherein are only the Logarithms of the Numbers from 1 to 100000, which may be sufficient for

most Uses.

The best Disposition of these Tables, in my Opinion, is that, first thought of by Nathaniel Roe, of Suffolk; and, with some Alterations for the better, followed by Sherwin in his Mathematical Tables published at London in 1705; wherein are the Logarithms from 1 to 101000 consisting of 7 Places of Figures. To which are subjoined the Differences and proportional Parts, by Means of which may be found easily the Logarithms of Numbers to 1000000, observing at the same Time that these Logarithms consist only of 7 Places of Figures. Here are also the Sines, Tangents, and Secants, with the Logarithms and Differences for every Degree and Minute of the Quadrant, with some other Tables of Use in practical Mathematicks.

THE

CONSTRUCTION

OF

LOGARITHMS.

HESE most excellent and useful Numbers were first invented by the samous and never to be forgotten Lord Neper, Baron of Merchiston in Scotland, asoresaid) Ann. 1614.) who ingeniously contrived to perform Multiplication and Division of Natural Numbers, by only adding or subtracting certain Artificial Numbers, which he called Logarithms, and the Extraction of Roots by dividing the Log. by 2 for the Square: by 3 for the Cube: by 4 for the Biquadrate, &c.

This Invention of his (no doubt) proceeded from a mature Confideration of the Coherence that is betwixt Numbers in Geometri-

cal Proportion and those in Arithmetical Progression.

As in these following:

Viz. { 1.2.4.8.16.32.64.128, &c. Geometrical. 0.1.2.3.4.5.6.7, &c. Arithmetical.

It is very perceptible, that, as the Numbers in the Geometrical Proportionals are produced by Multiplication or Division, those in the Arithmetical Progression are produced by Addition or Subtraction: As doth appear in this Example:

Viz. $\begin{cases} 4 \times 3^2 = 128 \\ 2+5 = 7 \end{cases}$ or $\begin{cases} 128 \div 3^2 = 4 \text{ Geometr.} \\ 7-5 = 2 \text{ Arithmet.} \end{cases}$

Again, { 1. 10. 100. 1000 . 10000 . 100000, & c. Geometr. 5, & c. Arithmet.

The same Coherence is betwixt these latter, as was between the two first Ranks.

Viz. { 1000×10=10000 } or { 100000÷1000=100Geometr. } 3+1=4 } or { 5-3=2 Arithmet. Either of these Examples do sufficiently shew the Reason and very Ground of Logarithms.

And from the latter of these it was, that the prime Logarithms

or Charac er slics were first affigned.

As in this Table:

Natural Num.	Logarithms.
I	0,0000000
10	1,0000000
100	2,0000000
1000	3,0000000
10000	4,0000000
100000	5,0000000

Having laid this Foundation, the next Work was to find out the Logarithms of the intermediate Numbers situated betwixt 1 and 10, viz. of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, &c. and of those betwixt 10 and 100, viz. of 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, &c. and so on for the rest. This

was a Work of some Difficulty, and very laborious.

The first Step in order thereunto (as I conceive) was to find out a Rank of continual Means betwixt 10 and 1, so as that the last (and least thereof) might be a mixed Number less than 2, and so near 1, as to have such a Number of Cyphers before the significant Figures thereof, as was intended the Places of Logarithms in the Table should consist of. Which Means are to be sound, by extracting the square Root of 10 (having first annexed a competent Number of Cyphers thereunto;) then extracting the Root of that Root, and so by a continued Extraction of Root out of Root, until there be a Root so qualify'd as before-mention'd: Which, to make a Table to seven Places in the Logarithm, will require twenty-sive several Extractions, the last of which will produce this Number, 1,00000006862238.

The next Step was to find out a Number betwixt (1) and (0) in Arithmetical Progression, that might truly correspond with the Mean before found (betwixt 10 and 1) such a Number must confequently be its Logarithm. And this may be found by a continual bisecting (or halving) of 1, so often as was the Number of the foregoing Extractions (to wit, twenty-five) the last of which Bisections will produce 0,000000029802322, &c. the true Logarithm of

1,00000006862238.

For as 1,0000006862238 by twenty-five continued Involutions (viz. first into itself, then that Product into itself, and so on successively) will produce 10; so will 0,0000002980232, by the

like Number of Doublings and Redoublings, produce 1.

This Mean (or Number) and its Logarithm being thus found, it will follow by Proportion, As the fignificant Figures of this Mean are to the fignificant Figures of its Logarithm: for are the fignificant

ficant Figures of any Mean, betwixt any given Number and 1: (having seven Cyphers before such Figures, as this hath) to the significant Figures of its Logarithm. To which must be prefixed seven Cyphers to complete it. After which, being doubled, and redoubled according to the Number of Extractions required to produce its corresponding Mean, will at last discover the true Logarithm of the given Number. For the clearing of this, take an Example.

Suppose it were required to find the Logarithm of the Number 2, to seven Places. First, by a continued Extraction of Root out of Root, beginning at 2, find such a Mean, or Root as before, betwixt 2 and 1, as will have feven Cyphers before its fignificant Figures; which, after twenty-three feveral Extractions, will be this Number 1,00000008262958. Then, according to the foregoing Proportions, it will be 6862238 : 2980232 : : 8262958 : 3588557. which prefix seven Cyphers, as before directed, then will 1,00000008269958 have for its Logarithm, ,00000003588557; which being doubled and redoubled, as abovefaid, will produce 0,30102997958658, the true Logarithm of 2; which being contracted to seven Places, according to the first Design, and agreeable to the seven Places of Cyphers, then it will become 0,3010299: But, in all the Tables that I have seen, the Logarithm of 2 is 0, 3010300: I conceive the Reason is, because the remaining Figures 7958658 come so near Unity of the last Place in the retained Figures.

And, by the some Method that this Logarithm of 2 is made, may the Logarithm of any other Number be found. But when once the Logarithms of a few of the prime Numbers, viz. of 3. 7. 11. 13. &c. (that is, of such Numbers as cannot be produced by the multiplying of two Integer Factors) are obtained, the rest may be easily composed by Addition and Subtraction only. For as $3 \times 2 = 6$ fo Log. of 3 + Log. of 2 = Log. of 6. And as $10 \div 2 = 5$ fo Log. of 10 - Log. of 2 = Log of 5. The like of all Numbers that have aliquot Parts (that is, such Integer Numbers as may be divided by Integers.) And indeed the Logarithms of feveral of the prime Numbers may also be obtained by Addition or Subtraction, as might easily be shewed, and is not difficult to conceive by any one, who but duly considers the Nature and Design of Logarithms, &c. of which I shall forbear saying any thing in this Place, and keep to my first Design herein, which was to give a brief Account of the ingenious Author's Method, as I conceive it, of making the same: who undoudtedly found it a very difficult Work, by Reason there are required so many several Extractions of Roots out of Roots, which must needs render it both troublesome and laborious. Then to propose a different Method of raising the Logarithms of such prime Numbers before-mentioned, which require the Extraction of Roots to obtain their respective Means, with one tenth Part of the Trouble and Time required by the foregoing Method. And not only so, but more exact; for, by our present Method of converging Series, the Root of any Power, how high soever it be, is easily sound at one single Extraction: and thereby the Errors which would arise by extracting a Surd Root out of a Surd Root, especially when often repeated, are avoided; and consequently such a Mean, as may be required betwixt any Number and Unity, is thereby more exactly found.

Now, how this may be performed, I here intend to shew, as

briefly as I can. In order thereunto, take this as a Model.

Let a = the Root, or Mean required betwixt any Number and Unity:

Then
$$\begin{cases} a^2 = \Box \ a \ . \ a^4 = \Box \ a^2 \ . \ a^8 = \Box \ a^4 \\ a^{16} = \Box \ a^3 \ . \ a^{3^2} = \Box \ a^{16} \ . \ a^{64} = \Box \ a^{3^2} \\ a^{128} = \Box \ a^{64} \ . \ a^{256} = \Box \ a^{128} \ . \ a^{51^2} = \Box \ a^{256} \end{cases}$$

And so on successively with the Indices in Geometrical Progression, until the Power of a be made equal to such a Term in that Progression, as that the Root, or Value of a may have, bet wixt Unity and its significant Figures, so many Cyphers, as are the intended Number of Places in the Logarithms.

For Instance, let it be required to find the Mean between 10 and 1, then the Power of a must be $a^{3355443^2} \equiv 10$, this Index $^{3355443^2}$ being the 25th Term in Geometrical Pregression, which may be

thus determined.

Let 1, the Characteristic or Logarithm of 10, be divided by such a Term in Geometrical Progression, as will cause such a Number of Cyphers to be before the significant Figures in the Quotient, as are required to be before the Figures of the Root a; suppose 7, as before. Then $1, \div 33554432 = .00000002980232$, &c. which is the true Arithmetical Mean (as before sound, by a continual bisecting of 1) correspondent to that signify'd by a; and therefore the Value of a found by extracting the respective Root of $10 = a^{33554432}$ will be the Mean required; viz. 1.00000006862238 whose Log. is .00000002980232. These, being found, are the Foundation of the rest, as before.

Then suppose it be required to find the Logarithm of any of the prime Numbers; if you please, that of two. In order thereunto, let a = the Root or Mean sought betwixt 2 and 1, as before; then must a be continually involved, as by the above Model, until its Index be equal to the greatest Term in Geometrical Progression, whose Number of Places of Figures are to be equal to the Number of required Cyphers before a, to wit 7. According to which, the Power

Power of a will be $a^{8388603} = 2$ (this 8388608 being the 23d Term in Geometrical Progression) consequently the respective Root of $2 = a^{8388608}$ will be the Mean requir'd.

Example.

Let
$$r + e \equiv a$$

Then will $r^{8388608} + 8388608 r^{8388607} e$
 $+35184367894528 r^{8388606} ee \equiv a^{8388606} \equiv 2$

Suppose r = 1

Then 1 + 8388608e + 35184367894528ee = 2That is 8388608e + 35184367894528ee = 1

Each Part being divided by the Co-efficient found prefixed to ee, viz. 351843, &c. then it will become

,00000023e + ee = ,000000000000284 = D

Consequently
$$\left\{ \frac{D}{\frac{1}{00000023 + e}} = e \right\}$$

Divisor ,00000031

First r = 1, + e = 0,00000008

New r = 1,00000008

which being duly involved, in the same Order as the Model denotes, and multiplied into the respective Co-efficients, will then produce these Numbers,

Viz. 1,9563638967 + 16411168e+68833416066289ee=2
Then 16411168e + 68833416066289ee = ,0436361033
And,0000002384e+ee=,0000000000000063393=D

Consequently
$$\left\{ \frac{D}{0,000002384+e} = e \right\}$$

Divisor,0000002410 9330 7230

000

Laft

Laft r = 1,00000008+ $\epsilon = 00000000263$ New r = 1,00000008263

I take only 1,0000000268 $\equiv r$; the which being involved, and ordered as before, will produce these following Numbers, viz. 1,999503684867 + 16773028e + 70351267454084 ee \equiv 2 Then 16773028e + 70351267454084 ee \equiv ,000496315133 ,0000002384186e + ee \equiv 0000000000000000705481443 \equiv D

Consequently $\left\{ \frac{D}{0.000002384186 + e} = e \right\}$

47686 (,0000000000295=0 ,0000002384186 + == ,0000000000295 2286214 Divisor ,00000023843 2146023 Divisor ,000000238447 14019143 11922405 Divisor ,0000002384481* *20967380 (879= Here I desist forming a new 19075848 Divisor and make use of the Abridgement. 891532 1669136 222396 Laft r = 1,00000000826214596 + = ,0000000000295879 a = 1,0000000826295879

This Value of a = 1,0000000826295879 is the Geometrical Mean betwixt 2 and 1, as was required; (agreeable to that before found, by twenty-three several Extractions.) And by this Method of proceeding, may be found the Mean betwixt 10 and 1, viz. 1,00000006862238, or betwixt any other of the (before-mentioned) Prime Numbers and Unity, as might easily be shewed. But for Brevity Sake, I shall omit giving more Examples thereof, this one being sufficient (especially to the Ingenious) if well considered, and but once understood, to shew the Nature of, and Manner how to proceed on the like Occasion, of finding any proposed

Mean. The next Thing will be to find the Logarithm of the Number from whence such Mean was produced, which may be

thus performed:

First, find its corresponding Arithmetical Mean, or Logarithm, by Proportion (as in Page 462.) Then multiply that corresponding Mean, so sound, into the Index Number of such Power as the Geometrical Mean was produced from; that Product will be the Logarithm of the given Number (without a continued Doubling and Redoubling, as before.) For the clearing of this, let it be required to complete the Logarithm of 2.

Having first found 1,00000006862238, the proper Geometrical Mean betwixt 10 and 1; also its corresponding Logarithm,00000002980232 (as before directed) with them and the Mean betwixt 2 and 1, last found, viz. 1,0000000826295879; make use of the above-mentioned Proportion (as in Page 463.) viz.

6862238: 2980232:: 826295879: 358855729
To which prefix feven Cyphers to complete it (as before.) Then it will become ,0000000358855729. This Number being multiplied into the Power of a (what that is, fee Page 465.) will produce the Logarithm of 2.

viz. 0000000358855729 × 8388608 = 0,30103000391352

But according to the first Design, it is required to have but seven Places, viz. 0301300; which is the true Logarithm of 2 without

any Defect.

Thus I have presented you with a new and expeditious Method of making Logarithms; which if they were required to sourteen or fifteen Places (I can modestly say) they might then be made with one twentieth Part of the Time and Trouble required by the first Method.

METHOD III.

A New Table of Logarithms. Compos'd by Mr. Long. Finding the Logarithm by Division only, and the Natural Number belonging to a Logarithm, by Multiplication only.

Log.	Nat. Num.		Log.	Nat. Num.
0,9	7.943282347		0,00009	1.000207254
0,8	6.309573445		0,00008	1.000184224
0,7	5.011872336	я	0,00007	1.000161194
0,6	3.981071706		0,00006	1.000138165
0,5	3.16227-660		0,00005	1.000115136
0,4	2.511886432.		0,00004	1.000092106
0,3	1.995252315		0,00003	1.000069080
0,2	1.584893193		0,00002	1.000046053
0,1	1.258925412		0,00001	1.000023026
0,09	1.230268771		0,000009	1.000020724
0,08	1.202264435	П	0,000008	1.000018421
0,07	1.174897555		0,000007	1.000016118
0,06	1.148153621		0,000006	1.000013816
0,05	1.122018454		0,000005	1.000011513
0,04	1.0964.78196		0,000004	1.000009210
0,03	1.071519305	ш	0,000003	1.0000006908
0,02	1.047128548		0,000002	1.000004605
0,01	1.023292992		0,000001	1.000002302
0,000	1.020939484		0,0000000	1.000002072
0,008	1.018591388		0,0000008	1.000001842
0,007	1.016248504		0,0000007	1.0000001611
0,006	1.013911380		0,0000006	1.000001381
0,005	1.011579454		0,0000005	1.000001151
0,004	1.009252886		0,0000004	1.000000921
0,003	1.005931669		0,0000003	1.0000000690
0,002	1.004615794		0,0000002	1.000000460
0,001	1.002305238		0,0000001	1.000000230
0,0009	1.002074475		0,00000000	1.000000207
0,0008	1.001843766		0,00000008	1.000000184
0,0007	1.001613109		0,00000007	1.000000161
0,0006	1.001382505		0,00000006	1.000000138
0,0005	1.001151956		0,00000005	1.000000115
0,0004	1.000921459		0,00000004	1.000000092
0,0003	1.000691015		0,00000003	1.0000000069
0,0002	1.000460623		0,00000002	1.000000046
100001	1.000230285		0,00000001	1.000000023
p-remarks and		-		

This Table I fometimes make use of for finding the Logarithm of any Number propos'd, and vice verfa. Suppose I had Occasion to find the Logarithm of 2000. I look in the first Class of my Table (the whole Table confifts of 8 Classes) for the next less to 2, which is 1.995262315, and against it is 3, which consequently is the first Figure of the Logarithm sought. Again, dividing the Number propos'd 2, by 1.995262315 the Number found in the Table, the Quotient is 1.002374467; which being look'd for in the fecond Class of the Table, and finding neither its Equal, nor a Lesser, I add o to the Part of the Logarithm before found, and look for the faid Quotient, 1.002374467 in the third Class, where the next less is 1.002305238, and against it is 1, to be added to the Part of the Logarithm already found; and dividing the Quotient 1.002374467, by 1.002305238, last found in the Table, the Quotient is 1.000069070; which being fought in the fourth Class gives o, but being sought in the fifth Class gives 2, to be added to the Part of the Logarithm already found; and dividing the last Quotient by the Number last found in the Table, viz. 1.000046053, the Quotient is 1.000023015, which, being fought in the fixth Class, gives 9 to the Part of the Logarithm already found: And dividing the last Quotient by the new Divisor, viz. 1.000002072, the Quotient is 1.000000219, which being greater than 1.000000115 shews that the Logarithm already found, viz. 3.3010299 is less than the Truth by more than half an Unit; wherefore adding 1, you have Briggs's Logarithm of 2000, viz. 3.3010300.

If any Logarithm be given, suppose 3,3010300, throw away the Characteristic, then overagainst these Figures 3...0.1.0
..0, you have in their respective Classes 1,995262315....0...
1,002305238....0...1,000069080...0..0 which multiply'd continually into one another, the Product is 2.00000019966, which, by reason the Characteristic is 3, becomes 2,000,00019966, &c. that is, 2000, the Natural Number desired.
I shall not mention the Method by which this Table is fram'd, be-

cause you will easily see that from the Use of it.

It is obvious to the intelligent Reader, that these Classes of Numbers are no other than so many Scales of mean Proportionals: in the first Class, between 1 and 10; so that the last Number thereof, viz. 1,258925412 is the tenth Root of 10, and the rest in order ascending are the Powers thereof. So in the second Class, the last Number 1,02329292 is the hundreth Root of 10, and the rest in the same Manner are Powers thereof. So 1.002305238, in the third Class, is the tenth Root of the last of the second, and

the rest its Powers, &c. Or, which is all one, each Number, in the preceding Class, is the tenth Power of the corresponding Number in the next following Class: Whence 'tis plain, that to construct these Tables requires no more than one Extraction of the fifth or sursolid Root for each Class, the rest of the Work being done by the common Rules of Arithmetick.

METHOD IV.

Their Construction, according to the common Rules, given by many Extractions of Roots, is tedious; the best Way yet known is this which follows.

To make a Table of Logarithms.

First, Put for the Logarithm of 1 a Cypher for the Index, and 2 competent Number of Cyphers for the Logarithm, according to the Number of Places you would have your Logarithms consist of; for 10 and Unit, with the same Number of Cyphers; for 100, 2, with as many Cyphers; for 1000, 3, with as many Cyphers, &c.

Secondly, Find the Difference between some two Logarithms above 1000, or rather above 10000, that differ by Unity; thus multiply the two Numbers together, and that Product you must multiply again by 43429448190325183896 * which last Product divided by the Arithmetical Mean between both Numbers, the Quotient is the Difference sought.

Suppose we would find the Difference between the Log. 10000, and 10001, the Product of these two Numbers is 1.00010000. which multiplied by 4343 produced 43434343; this divided by 10000.5, quotes 4343. Now if to the Logarithm of 10000, which is 4.0000000, you add the Difference before found, to wit, 434, the Sum 4.0000434 is the true Logarithm of 10001 to 7 Places.

Thirdly, Having thus found the Difference of any two Logarithms differing by Unity, and consequently some of the Logarithms by dividing the Difference sound by the Arithmetical Mean, between any two Numbers differing by Unity, you shall have the Difference of the Logarithm of those two Numbers.

Thus to find the Difference betwixt the Logarithm of 274, and 275.; divide 4343, the Difference of the Logarithm of 10000, and 10001 by 2745 the Quotient 15821, is the Difference fought.

Fourthly, Having by this Means found a few of the prime Logarithms, the rest are made by Addition and Subtraction, and having

^{*} Which is the Subtangent of the Curve expressing Briggs's Legarithms, See Keil's Trig. P.22. 135, 140, &c.

ing made the Canon upwards, above 1000 to 10000, by Conse-

quence it is made for all inferior Numbers.

The prime Numbers to which Logarithms must be found, in the first Place are these, 2.3.7.11.13.17.19.23.29.31.37.41.43.47.53.59.61.67.71.73.79.89.97, &c. or

the fame Numbers with Cyphers.

But fince it was very tedious and laborious, to find the Logatithms of the prime Numbers, and not easy to compute Logarithms by Interpolation, by first, second, and third, &c. Differences, therefore the great Men, Sir Isaac Newton, Mercator, Gregory, Wallis, and lastly, Dr. Halley, have published infinite converging Series, by which the Logarithms of Numbers to any Number of Places may be had more expeditiously and truer: Concerning which Series, Dr. Halley has written a learned Tract, in the Philosophical Transactions, wherein he has demonstrated those Series after a new Way, and shews how to compute the Logarithms by them. But I think it may be more proper here to add a new Series, by Means of which may be found, easily and expeditiously, the Logarithms of large Numbers.

Let z be an odd Number, whose Logarithm is sought; then shall the Number z-1 and z+1 be even, and accordingly their Logarithms, and the Difference of the Logarithms will be had, which let be called y: Therefore, also the Logarithm of a Number which is a Geometrical Mean between z-1 and z+1 will be given, viz. equal to the half Sum of the Logarithms. Now the

Series $y \times \frac{1}{4z} + \frac{1}{24z^3} + \frac{7}{360z^5} + \frac{181}{15120z^7} + \frac{13}{25200z^9}$ &c. shall be equal to the Logarithm of the Ratio, which the Geometrical Mean between the Numbers z - 1 and z + 1, has to the Arithmetical Mean, viz. to the Number z.

If the Number exceeds 1000, the first Term of the Series $\frac{y}{4^{22}}$ is sufficient for producing the Logarithm to 13 or 14 Places of Figures, and the second Term will give the Logarithm to 20 Places of Figures. But if z be greater than 10000, the first Term will exhibit the Logarithm to 18 Places of Figures; and so this Series is of great Use in filling up the Logarithms of the Chiliads omitted by Briggs. For Example; It is required to find the Logarithm of 20001. The Logarithm of 20000 is the same as the Logarithm of 2, with the Index 4 prefix'd to it; and the Difference of the Logarithms of 20000 and 20002, is the same as the Difference of the Logarithms of the Numbers 10000 and 10001, viz. 0.0000434272

Quotient $\frac{y}{4^{2}}$ shall be _____ 0. 00000 0000542814

And if the Logarithm or the Geometri-4. 30105 1709302416 cal Mean be added to the Quotient, the Sum will be the Logarithm of 20001. Wherefore it is manifest, that to have

4. 30105 1709845230

the Logarithm to 14 Places of Figures, there is no Necessity of continuing out the Quotient beyond 6 Places of Figures. But if you have a Mind to have the Logarithm to 10 Places of Figures only, as they are in Vlacq's Tables, the two first Figures of the Quotient are enough. And if the Logarithms of the Numbers above 20000 are to be found by this Way, the Labour of doing them will mostly consist in setting down the Numbers. Note, This Series is eafily deduced from that found out by Dr. Halley; and those who have a Mind to be inform'd more in this Matter, let them consult his abovenam'd Treatife.

Mr. WARD's Easy Method of making the Canon of Sines, Tangents, &c.

IRST, let me premise two Things, that the Periphery of a Circle, whose Radius is Unity or 1, is 6.283185, &c. and that the natural Sine of one Minute doth so insensibly differ from the Length of the Arch of one Minute, that it may be taken for the fame.

Consequently,

As the Periphery in Minutes: is to the Periphery in equal Parts of the Radius: fo is one Minute: to the Parts agreeing to that Minute.

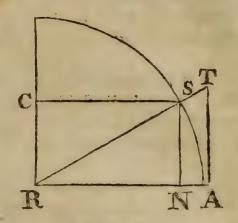
That is, 21600': 6,283185:: 1': 0,000290888 = the Natural Sine of one Minute; which agrees with the largest Table of Sines I ever faw.

Having thus got the Sine of one Minute, its Co-fine may be thus found:

Suppose RA = RS the Radius of any Circle, SN = the Sine of the

Arch S A. Then RN = CS is the Co-Sine of that Arch. But $\square RS = \square$ S $N = \square R$ N, consequently $\square RS = \square SN = RN$.

That is, From the Square of the Radius, subtract the Square of the Sine of 1', the square Root of the Remainder will be the Co-Sine of 1', per Chap. 9. Prop. 1. In Numbers, the Sine of 1' is 000290885, its Square is 0,000000084612; and 1



- 0,000000084612 = 0,999999915388, the Square Root there-

of is ,99999995 = the Co-Sine required.

The Sine and Co-Sine of one Minute being thus obtain'd, all the rest of the Sines in the Quadrant may be gradually calculated by Mr. Michael Dary's Sinical Proportions; which I shall here infert, to the same Effect as they are in his Miscellanies; and then explain and demonstrate the Truth of those Proportions.

If a Rank of Arches be equi-different;

Then

As the Sine of any Arch in that Rank: is to the Sum of the Sines of any two Arches equally remote from it on each Side::

fo is the Sine of any other Arch in the said Rank: to the Sum of the Sines of two Arches next it on each Side; having the same common Distance.

Immediately after these Proportions, he lays down the following

Æquations:

Three Arches equi-different being proposed; if (saith he) you put $Z \equiv$ the Sine of the great Extreme, $y \equiv$ the Sine of the lesser Extreme; $M \equiv$ the Sine of the Mean; $m \equiv$ the Co-Sine thereof; D the Sine of the common Difference; $d \equiv$ the Co-Sine thereof; and $R \equiv$ the Radius.

1. Then
$$Z + y = \frac{2 Md}{R}$$
. Then $Z - y = \frac{2 mD}{R}$.

3. Then
$$Zy = MM - DD$$
. 4. Then $\frac{Z}{y} = \frac{Md + mD}{Md - Md}$.

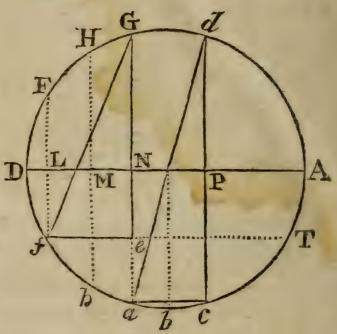
From the foregoing it is evident (saith he) that if two Thirds, viz. either the former or latter 60 Degrees, or the former 30 Degrees, and the latter 30 Degrees of the Quadrant be completed with Sines; the remaining Part of the Quadrant may be completed by Addition, or Subtraction only.

Thus far is from the ingenious Mr. Dary, concerning these excellent Proportions; the Truth whereof I shall

thus demonstrate.

In the annexed Circle DA = da are Diameters, fh = ha = ab = bc, are equal Arches.

Draw f T parallel to D A; then will $Ne \equiv Lf$. And the $\triangle dac$, like the $\triangle Gfe$, being both right-angled at c and e, and $\angle d = \angle G$ because subtended by the equal Arches $ac \equiv fa$.



Therefore da: dc:: Gf: Ge.

Consequently $\frac{1}{2} da : dc :: \frac{1}{2} Gf : Ge$. But Hb = Gf, whence $HM = \frac{1}{2} Gf$, and $\frac{1}{2} da =$ the Radius, $dp = \frac{1}{2} dc$. Therefore it will be, Radius : $2 dp = :: HM = \frac{1}{2} Gf : GN + Ne = GN + Lf$. That is, as the Radius : is to twice the Sine dp :: so is the Sine HM: to the Sum of the two Sines GN and FL = fL. Q. E. D.

I shall now explain these Proportions, and shew how they may be applied in Practice: Having the Sine of one Minute, and its Co-Sine as before; let the Radius be made the mean or middle Term between those two Extremes; then the Proportions will run

Thus {
As the Radius: is to the double Co-sine of one Minute:: so is the Sine of one Minute: to the Sine of two Minutes, and of oo': and so is the Sine of 2':: to the Sum of the Sines of 3' and 1':: and so is the Sine of 3': to the Sum of the Sine of 4' and 2'.

And so on in a successive Order, from Minute to Minute.

And then, if from the Sum of the Sines of 3' and 1' be taken the Sine of 1', the Remainder will be the Sine of 3': And the like, i', from the Sum of the Sines of 4' and 2', be taken the Sine of 2' there will remain the Sine of 4', &c.

Proceeding on by this Method, all the Natural Sines in the Quadrant may be easily calculated by Addition, and Subtraction only. For the Radius, or First Term in the Proportion, being 1,000000

or Unity, Division is wholly avoided: And because the second Term in the Proportion varies not, if a Tarisfa, or small Table be made thereof, to all the nine Digits, then Multiplication is also avoided. For, by the Help of that Tarisfa, the whole Work may be perform'd by Addition and Subtraction, until all the Sines are gradually made.

Thus you have an easy Way of making the Canon of Sines; which being once done, the Tangents and Secants may be found

by the following

Proportions { As the Co-fine of any Arch: is to the Sine of that Arch: :

fo is the Radius: to the Tangent of the same Arch.

That is, by the first Scheme of this Problem,

RN:SN::RA:TA. And RN:RS::RA:RT= the Se-

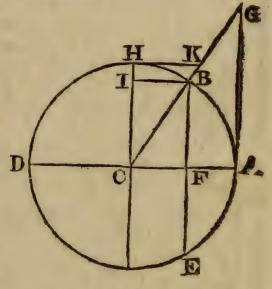
cant of that Arch.

Plane Trigonometry.

DEFINITIONS.

r. A Circle is suppos'd to be divided into 360 equal Parts, called Degrees; and each Degree into 60 equal Parts, called Minutes; and each Minute into 60 equal Parts, called Seconds, &c. Any Portion of whose Circumserence is called an Arch, and is measured by the Number of Degrees it contains.

2. A Chord or Subtense is a straight Line, connecting the Extremities of an Arch; as BE is the Chord of the Arches BAE, BDE.



3. A Sine (or Right-sine) is a straight Line drawn from one End of an Arch perpendicular to that Diameter passing thro' the other End; or it is half the Chord of twice the Arch; so BF is the Sine of the Arches BA, BD. And here it is evident, that the Sine of 90 Degrees (which is equal to the Radius or Semi-Diameter of the Circle) is the greatest of all Sines, the Sine of an Arch greater than a Quadrant being less than the Radius.

4. The Difference of an Arch from a Quadrant, whether it be greater or less, is call'd its Complement; so HB is the Complement of the Arches BA, BD; BI is the Sine of that Complement,

Ppp2

and therefore it is called the Co-fine, or Sine-Complement of the

Arches BA, BD.

5. The Secant of an Arch is a straight Line drawn from the Center thro' one and of the Arch till it meet with the Tangent, which is a straight Line touching the Circle at the Extremity of that Diameter which cuts the other End of the Arch; so CG is the Secant, and AG the Tangent of the Arches BA, BD: And CK is the Cofecant, and HK the Co-tangent of the said Arches.

6. A Versed Sine is the Segment of the Diameter intercepted between the Arch and its Sine: Thus FA is the Versed Sine of the

Arch BA, and FD of the Arch BD.

7. Whatever Number of Degrees an Arch wants of a Semi-Circle is called its Supplement.

8. That Part of the Radius which is betwixt the Center and Sine

is equal to the Co-fine; thus CF is = IB.

9. If an Arch be greater or less than a Quadrant the Sum or Difference of the Radius or Co-sine is equal to the Versed Sine.

In a Triangle are fix Parts, viz. three Sides and three Angles: Any three of which being given, except the three Angles of a Plain Triangle, the other three may be found either Mechanically, by the Help of a Scale of equal Parts and Line of Chords, or by an Arithmetical Calculation, if, supposing the Radius divided into any Number of equal Parts, we know how many of those equal Parts are in the Sine, Tangent, or Secant of any Arch propos'd: The Art of inferring which is called Trigonometry, and it is either Plane or Spherical.

Plane Trigonometry is folv'd by the Help of four fundamental Propositions call'd Axioms.

Axiom I.

In a Right-angled Triangle ABC, if one Leg of the Right-angle, as AB or CB, be made the Radius of a Circle, then shall the other Leg CB or AB be the Tangent of the Angle opposite to it, and the Hypothenuse AC (or Side opposite to the Right-angle) its Secant (by Definition 5.)

But if the Hypothenuse AC be made the Radius of a Circle, then will the Legs (or Sides including the Right-angle) to wir, CB and AB be B

the Sines of the Angles opposite (by Definition 3.)

Axiom

Upon this Axiom depends the Solution of the feven Cases of Right-angled Plane Triangles.

Note, That the three Angles of a Plane Triangle make two

Right-Angles, or 180 Degrees, by 32. 1 Eucl.

For the more easy making the Proportions for the Solution of Right-angled Triangles, observe, that as different Sides are made Radius, so the other Sides require different Names, which Names are either Sines, Tangents, or Secants, and are to be taken out of your Table.

To find a Side, any Side may be made Radius: Then fay, as the Name of the Side given is to the Name of the Side required; so is

the Side given to the Side required.

But to find an Angle, one of the given Sides must be made Radius; then, as the Side made Radius, is to the other Side; so is the Name of the first Side (which is Radius) to the Name of the second Side; which fourth Proportional must be found among the Sines or Tangents, &c. to be determined by the Side made Radius, and against it is the Angle required.

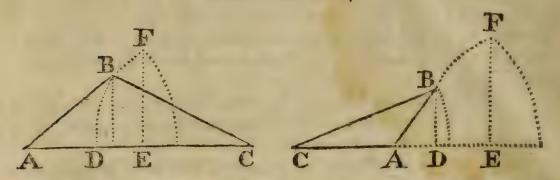
The Proportions for the Solution of seven Cases of Plane Rightangled Triangles [See the next foregoing Fig]

angled 1	l riangies	. See the next foregoing	rig.	
Given.	Reqd.	Proportions.	Rad.	Case.
AB A and C	ВС	Cofi. A : Si. A : : A B : B C. R : Tan. A : : A B : B C. Co-t. A : R : : A B : B C.	AC AB BC	I
A B A and C	AC	Cofi. A: R:: AB: AC. R: Sec. A:: AB: AC. Tan. A: Cofe. A:: AB: AC.	AC AB BC	2
AB	A	AB: BC :: R: Tan. A.	AB	
BC	and C	Complement is C. BC: AB:: R: Tan. C. Complement is A.	вС	3
AB	AC	AB: BC:: R: Tan. A; then		
ВС	AC	Cofi. A: R:: AB: AC, or $\sqrt{: \Box AB + \Box BC} := AC$ (per 47, 1. Eucl.	AC	4
A B A C	A and C	AC: BC:: R: Cofi. A. AB: AC:: R: Secant A.	AC AB	5
A B A C	BC	AC: AB:: R: Cofi. A; then R: Tan. A:: AB: BC, or $\sqrt{: \Box A C - \Box AB} : \equiv BC$.	AC AB	6
A C A and C	AB	R: Cofi. A:: AC: AB, Sec. A: R:: AC: AB, Cof. A: Cot. A:: AC: AB.	AC AB BC	7

Axiom II.

In any Triangle the Sides are proportional to the Sines of the opposite Angles.

Demonstration.



Produce the leffer Side of the Triangle ABC, to wit AB to F, making AF = BC: Let fall the Perpendiculars BD, FE, upon the Side CA produc'd if Need be; then will FE be the Sine of the Angle A, and BD the Sine of the Angle C, to the Radius BC = AF.

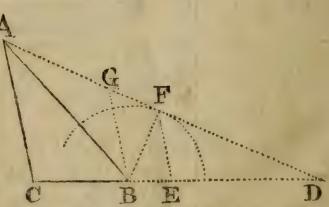
Now the Triangles ABD and AFE, having the \angle A common to them both, and the \angle D = \angle E = to a Right-Angle, are fimilar; wherefore (by 4. 6 Eucl. Elem.) AF (BC): AB:: FE: BD; viz.:: Si. A: Si. C. Q. E. D. Otherwise thus; by Ax. I. AB: R:: BD: Si. A, and BC: R:: BD: Si. C; therefore AB \times Si. A (= R \times BD) = BC \times Si. C; wherefore AB: BC:: Si. C: Si. A. Q. E. D.

Axiom III.

The Sum of the Legs of any Angle of a Plane Triangle is to their Difference, as the Tangent of half the Sum of the Angles opposite to those Legs is to the Tangent of half their Difference.

Demonitration.

In the Triangle ABC produce CB, the leffer Leg of the Angle B, till BD becomes = BA, the greater Leg, and then bifect CD in E; join AD and bifect it also in F; draw BF, which (by 8. 1 Eucl. El.) will be perpent to AD; and



draw EF, which (by 2 6 Eucl. Elem.) will be parallel to AC. Then will the Angle ABF = FBD = \frac{1}{2} ABD, which external Angle ABD is (by 32. I Eucl. Elem) = BAC + C, that is to the Sum of the opposite Angles required.

Draw then BG parallel to AC, so will the Angle GBA be (by 29. I Eucl. Elem.) equal to its Alternate one BAC; and if from half the

Sum

Sum of the opposite Angles you take the lesser Angle, i. e. If from ∠ ABF you take the ∠ GBA, there will remain ∠ GBF = half the Difference of the opposite Angles: And so also, if from CE half the Sum of the Legs, you take CB the leffer Leg, there will remain BE equal to half the Difference of the Legs. And then fince the ABF is Right-angled, if BF be made Radius, AF will be the Tangent of _ ABF (i. e. the Tangent of half the Sum of the opposite Angles); and in the little & GBF, FG will be the Tangent of the \(GBF (i. e. the Tangent of half the Difference of the opposite Angles): But the Segments of the Legs of any Triangle cut by Lines parallel to the Base, being (by Schol. to 2. 6 Eucl. El.) proportional; EC: EB:: FA: FG; that is in Words, half the Sum of the Legs is to half their Difference, as the Tangent of half the Sum of the opposite Angles is to the Tangent of half their Difference: But Wholes are as their Halves; wherefore the Sum of the Legs is to their Difference, as the Tangent of half the Sum of the Angles opposite is to the Tangent of half their Difference. Q. E. D.

Axiom IV.

The Base or greatest Side of any Plane Triangle is to the Sum of the Legs, as the Difference of the Legs is to the Difference of the Segments of the Base made by a Perpendicular let fall from the Angle opposite to the Base.

Demonstration.

From the \(\sum_{\text{B}} \), on the Base AC, of the \(\text{ABC}, \) let fall the Perpendicular BD; on B, as a Center, with the greater Leg BC, as a Radius, describe the Circle Bx Cy Z; and produce AB to \(\text{x} \) and \(\text{Y} \) and CA to \(\text{Z}. \) Then by the 35. 3 Eucl. Elem. Ay \(\text{Ax} \) is \(= \text{AC} \) \(\text{XZ}; \(\text{viz.} : \text{BC} - \text{BA} : \text{BC} + \text{BA} : \text{BC} - \text{BA} : \text{DC} - \text{DA} \) therefore AC: BC + BA:: BC - BA: DC - DA. \(\text{Q}. \) E. D. Otherwise, let the Difference of the Squares of the Sides BC and AB be taken and divided by the Base AC, the Quotient shall be the Difference of the Segments of the Base aforesaid: Or, square all the 3 Sides, and deduct the Square of one of the less Sides out of the Sum of the other two Squares, divide half the Remainder by the longest Side, the Quotient is the Alternate Segment of the Base. The Proportions for the Solution of the fix Cases of Plane obli-

[See the last Fig.]

que Triangles.

Plane Trigonometry.

Given.	Requ.	Proportions.	Ax.	Case.
AB BC and C	A	AB: BC:: Si. C: Si. A.	2	I

N. B. 1st, If the given Angle be Obtuse, the other two Angles then are each Acute. 2dly, If the Side opposite to the given Angle is longer than the Side opposite to the Angle sought, then is the Angle sought Acute; but if shorter, then is the said Angle doubtful, and may be either Acute or Obtuse, because both the Sine and its Complement to two Right-Angles are the same: Wherefore to be certain of what Quality the Angle opposite to the greatest Side is: Take the Sum and Difference of the greatest Side and Middle (or least) and their Logarithms, if the Half of them be equal to the Logarithm of the third Side, the Angle opposite to the greatest Side is a Right-Angle; but if the Logarithm of the third Side be greater than the Half, it is Acute, if less, it is Obtuse: Or, without Logarithms, multiply the said Sum by the Difference abovesaid; and extract the Square Root.

and C		known.		
		Si. A : Si. B : : B C : A C.		
A, C and BC	A B	Si. A : Si. C : : B C : A B.	2	3
B		BC + AB: BC - AB:: Tan. ½ Sum of the /s opposite: Tan. ½ Difference of		
BC	A and C	the \angle s opposite. Then $\frac{1}{2}$ Sum $+\frac{1}{2}$ Difference = greater \angle A; and $\frac{1}{2}$ Sum	3	4
		- Difference = lesser \(\alpha \) C.	3	
В		First, find the Angles by the last; then	3	
A B	AC	Si. C : Si. B : : A B : A C.	2	5
BC		<u>'</u>		
AB		AC: BC+BA::BC-BA:DC-DA:	4	
BC	A	Then $\frac{1}{2}$ AC $+\frac{1}{2}$ DC $-\frac{1}{2}$ DA $=$ DC.		
AC	В	And $\frac{1}{2}$ AC $-: \frac{1}{2}$ DC $-: \frac{1}{2}$ DA $:=$ DA.		6
	C.,	Then AB: AD:: R: Cofi. A.	I	1

Or more readily at one Operation.

And CB: DC:: R: Cofi. C.

And $180^{\circ} - \angle A - \angle C = \angle B$.

From half the Sum of the Sides subduct each particular Side, and let the Sum of the Logarithm of the half Sum and Difference of the Side subtending the enquired Angle be subducted from the Sum of the Log. of the other Difference and the double Radius, half the Remainder shall be the Log. of the Tangent of half the enquired Angle.

the Remainder shall be the Log. of the Tangent of half the enquired Angle.

Agreeable to this Axiom in Geilibrand's Trig. Britannica, p. 46.

As the Restangle of half the Sum of the Sides and the Difference between that half Sum and the Side opposite to the Angle required, is to the Restangle of the other two Remainders; so is the Square of Radius to the Square of the Tangent of half the Argie sought.

Ex Angulis latera, well ex lateribus Angulos & mixtim in Triangulis tam plaris quam

Ex Argulis lasera, wel ex laseribus Angulos & mixtim in Triangulis tam plaris guam Sphæricis affequi, Summa Gloria Mathematici est : Sic enim Cælum & Turras & Maria felici & admirando calculo mensurat.

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